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ABSTRACT

Community colleges are faced with the need to hire not only more new faculty, but also a more diverse faculty. Although community colleges have a disproportionately large number of minority students, the numbers of minority faculty are low. Because state and federal affirmative action programs are under increasing attack, community college administrators are somewhat limited in their ability to influence policy and procedural changes regarding this issue. The role of community college faculty involvement in the hiring process is not well documented. In order to answer the question of how community colleges can hire a more diverse faculty, the author guided the study with two subsidiary questions: (1) What are the policies and procedures for the hiring of full-time faculty? and (2) What strategies are being considered for hiring a more diverse full-time faculty in the future? Twenty participants who had observed various aspects of the current faculty selection process were selected and agreed to participate in in-depth interviews. Twenty-six faculty and staff were selected and agreed to participate in concept mapping research. The author found that a cornerstone of the affirmative action process seemed to be wider distribution of advertisements for available positions than had existed in the past at the college studied. Research instrument appended. (Contains 123 references, 8 tables, and 5 figures.) (NB)

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PIECING TOGETHER THE "MOSAIC CALLED DIVERSITY": ONE COMMUNITY COLLEGE'S ON-GOING EXPERIENCE WITH HIRING A MORE DIVERSE FACULTY

ED 479 224

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THESIS

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education
in the Graduate College of the
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 1997

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ABSTRACT

Community colleges are faced with a rapidly changing environment. Faculty hired during the late sixties and early seventies are reaching retirement age, potentially creating many new vacancies. Student demographics reflect an increasingly diverse population. Affirmative action, once a guiding force for hiring a more diverse faculty, is under attack by legislation and the courts. Community colleges interested in hiring a more diverse full-time faculty will need to seek proven models of how to develop and implement policies, structures, and strategies to accomplish their goals without the assistance of external forces like affirmative action. This dissertation is an exploratory case study on one community college thought to be such a model.

The case study begins with in-depth interviews of twenty administrators, faculty, and staff in an attempt to determine what the policies, structures, and strategies related to hiring faculty are at the college. The traditional case study methodology of in-depth interviews and document review are extended to include the conceptualization of the inter-relationships between various strategies using Trochim's The Concept System (1996).

The major findings include past hiring decisions were made by department chairs and/or senior administrators. The hiring practices have changed to reflect more participation by faculty at all stages of the process. Early hiring practices were marked by compliance to regulations. Present practices include a clear commitment by senior administration for hiring a more diverse faculty. The cornerstone of the affirmative action process seemed to be a wider distribution of advertisement of positions. One innovative procedure was the provision for certain faculty and staff members, who had volunteered for additional training, to be responsible for enforcing the affirmative action policies of the college. Another innovation was a "grow your own" minority

internship program to increase the number of available, classroom-experienced minority faculty. Despite procedural changes, the actual number of minority full-time faculty has not changed in the last six years and the number of full-time female faculty members has declined slightly. Two factors, not part of the formal hiring process, emerged from the analysis as possible contributors to the lack of change, namely preparation (experience) and fit. There was a general belief that the loss of affirmative action would not alter the faculty hiring process. The lack of knowledge about the impact of labor market effects on minority faculty pools in community colleges made it difficult to draw conclusions about such effects.

The software package used, The Concept System (Trochim, 1996), proved to be a valuable tool for understanding how the participants thought about the hiring process. The group sorted and rated 48 statements related to the strategies that either were in place or could be put in place in the future for the purpose of hiring a more diverse faculty. There was a strong consensus in how the statements were grouped. Two regions emerged later described as internal and external strategies. The participants rated each of the statements on a five point Likert-type scale of importance. The three groups of statements judged to be most important were the selection process (4.07), recruitment package (4.04), and communications (3.99). No statement had a rating below 2.60.

The pattern-matching (ladder diagrams) provided by the software allowed for comparisons of rating averages between various groups in the study. It was thought that department chairs might be threatened by the loss of their prerogatives in hiring, but the high correlation ($r = .78$) between the department chairs and others indicated that both groups viewed the statements in much the same way. There seemed to be differences between those with more knowledge (and

also with more experience) in the search process when compared with those with less knowledge (and less experience).

A major conclusion that was drawn from the research was while changes in procedures may be necessary, such changes are not sufficient to alter results with regard to diversity. A second conclusion was that "grow you own" programs may be an effective method for increasing the size of the pool of experienced minority faculty.

Recommendations include the need to study "grow your own" programs in more depth, the need for further exploration of the effects on hiring for community colleges in the proximity of nearby universities, and the need to identify the variables and to determine the best practices for addressing labor market effects on faculty hiring in community colleges.

This is dedicated to one of the world's best fishermen who passed on before the thesis could be completed, Gayle Wright. A long-time advocate of the community college movement in general and career education in particular, former "boss" and mentor, and fellow lover of good food and wine, Gayle provided the encouragement needed to begin this long journey.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In the 1960s and 1970s community colleges were in a period of significant expansion. Cohen and Brawer (1989), citing data from the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges (AACJC), noted that in the year ending in 1948 there were 650 two-year colleges of which 328 were public institutions. By 1958 the total had only grown to a total of 677, though the number of public institutions had increased to 400. By 1968 the number of public two-year colleges had almost doubled to 739. By 1978 there was a total of 1,234 two-year colleges, of which 1,047 were public. According to the Community College Fact Book (El-Khawas, Carter, & Ottinger, 1988) enrollments in two-year colleges in the year ending 1957 numbered 870,000. In the decade from 1967 to 1977 enrollments in two-year colleges jumped almost 275% from 1,464,000 to 4,085,000. By 1987 that number had grown to 4,849,000.

Again citing data from AACJC, Cohen and Brawer (1989) show that the total number of full-time instructors in two-year colleges grew by nearly fivefold in a two-decade span (from 20,003 in 1958 to 95,461 in 1978). Questions arose about the ability to find qualified staff during this period of expansion.

Today community college faculty hired during the boom period of the sixties and early seventies are retiring in large numbers and the colleges are again faced with the problem of finding qualified faculty in large numbers. As early as 1988 the Illinois Community College Board (1994) warned that nearly 40% of the full-time faculty in Illinois would be eligible for retirement by 1992. The report noted that both numerically and proportionately more males than females were nearing retirement and that a larger proportion of minorities than whites were over 50 years of age.

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Nationally, have the community colleges been able to continue to hire minority faculty? Olivas (1979) studied minority faculty representation in two-year colleges during the 1970s and concluded that "the striking under-representation of minority faculty in transfer programs is inexcusable" (p. 176). Although the numbers and percentages of nonwhite faculty have increased from earlier estimates, which ranged from a low of 1.6% to a high of 5% (Olivas, 1979, p. 64), the representation remains at a low level. According to Cvancara (1995), quoting the 1994 Digest of Education Statistics based on the 1992-93 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty, only 18.1% of community college faculty are nonwhite. The exact proportion of minority faculty at the two-year college level is difficult to determine with precision, in part because the Equal Employment Opportunities Commission's annual report on educational statistics does not distinguish between two- and four-year colleges. Nevertheless it is difficult to ignore the conclusion drawn by Opp and Smith (1994) that "two-year college administrators need to address this issue of equity in their full-time faculty hiring and in tenure and promotion decisions" (p. 51).

In a report widely acknowledged as a national vision statement for United States community colleges, the Commission on the Future of Community Colleges (1988) supported increased minority representation among faculty:

> Beyond excellence, which is central, the recruitment of new faculty must focus on diversity. The average full-time community college faculty is 50 years of age. He or she has taught ten years or more. More than half the faculty are male; about 90% are white; less than 5% are black; and even fewer are Hispanic. At a time when the student body is female and black or Hispanic, community colleges can no longer live with the current arrangement. Students in such a setting, both minority and non-minority, do not have representative models or mentors. (p. 12)

Similar calls for increased diversity in the faculty have been made at the state level. A report of the Access and Opportunity Committee for the Illinois Community College Board

(ICCB, 1995) revealed a number of barriers to access and opportunity. The Committee concluded that

> Last, but surely not least, community colleges must address cultural barriers. The fact that nearly 60% of all community college students are women and that community colleges are the overwhelming choice of minorities does not change the fact that these students often find themselves in a traditional, monocultural academic environment. Should we expect these diverse students to adapt to the status quo -- or should our colleges be challenged to become more inclusive in both institutional climate and curricula? (p. 9)

Research on Minority Faculty Underrepresentation

Research on how to successfully address the issues of underrepresentation and diversity among higher education faculty have adopted four broad and somewhat overlapping approaches: external mandates in the form of affirmative action guidelines, administrative leadership, faculty involvement, and market forces. Each of the four approaches are introduced in this chapter and discussed further in Chapter Two.

Research on the Role of Affirmative Action

The first approach to addressing minority faculty underrepresentation is to examine the effectiveness of externally mandated change derived from state and federal affirmative action guidelines. Kelsey (1988) surveyed 175 randomly selected U.S. public junior and community colleges. Survey reports demonstrate support for affirmative action programs. Scollay, Tichamyer, Bokemeier, and Wood (1989) surveyed 150 affirmative action officers at research and doctoral granting institutions. The findings of the study suggest that affirmative action officers can impact the selection process, yet better information is needed to guide future research on how affirmative action was actually implemented. A number of experiments involving undergraduates simulated the hiring process to determine

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student attitudes towards affirmative action programs. Several studies (Summers, 1995; Doverspike & Arthur, 1995; Major, Feinsteia, & Crocker, 1994; Dietz-Uhler & Murrel, 1993) used students in experiments to determine attitudes towards various aspects of afirmative action. In general, they concluded that students tended to hold negative attitudes towards affirmative action. Turner and Pratkanis (1994a) warned that because affirmative action may have been implemented in vastly different ways compared to experimental formats for research, some of the fundamental assumptions of these studies have been open to question.

The most recent Supreme Court decisions seem to indicate the court has begun to move away from support for affirmative action (Cvancara, 1995). In May 1995 the Supreme Court in Greene v. Podberesky (1995) let stand an earlier decision, Podberesky v. Kirman (1994), involving a scholarship program at the University of Maryland. At issue was whether the University might maintain a separate merit scholarship for which only African-American students were eligible. Cvancara (1995) questioned the extent of the impact of the Greene decision on community colleges stating, "That action had little effect on two-year colleges where open access is a hallmark and race-specific scholarships are relatively uncommon" (p. 1).

Of potentially greater concern for community colleges were two recent Supreme Court rulings: Adarand v. Pena (1995) and Texas v. Hopwood (1996). On June 12, 1995 the Supreme Court, in a 5 - 4 split decision, found in the case of Adarand v. Pena (1995) that affirmative action programs based on race can no longer use as evidence sociological data based on membership in a particular racial group; the only allowable evidence will be

in specific cases where individual discrimination can be established. On July 1, 1996 the Supreme Court in the case of Texas v. Hopwood (1996) let stand a lower court's ruling that the Law School at the University of Texas at Austin could not use race as a factor for admissions. The Hopwood ruling is currently under appeal.

In the fall of 1996 voters in California passed Proposition 209 which effectively ruled out the use of affirmative action in the hiring process (Schmidt, 1996; Stall & Morain, 1996). The courts have enjoined the law from implementation until a ruling on its constitutional validity is made. Whereas the California state law is not directly applicable to other states, they may well consider similar initiatives. When taken in conjunction with the recent Supreme Court decisions, it seems increasingly clear that community colleges cannot rely on external mandates to help alleviate racial and gender inequities in the hiring process.

Research on the Role of Administrative Leadership

Research supports the importance of administrative leadership in implementing programs designed to alter the inequities of prior hiring policies. Atcherson and Conyers (1989) surveyed 259 higher education affirmative action/equal employment opportunity personnel across the United States. They concluded that there was "considerably less support for affirmative action in working units than at the higher administrative levels and less support for hiring of minorities at all levels than support for hiring of women" (p. 21). Atcherson and Conyers also concluded that "support from the institution's top officials has been considered essential to implementation of an affirmative action plan" (p. 20). Freidman (1994), in a doctoral dissertation on strategies employed by community college

presidents in California to implement affirmative action, came to similar conclusions about the importance of community college presidents setting the tone in order for affirmative action plans to be effective.

Newcombe and Conrad (1981) proposed a grounded theory of how colleges and universities implement mandated changes related to affirmative action programs. They studied how thirteen four-year public colleges and universities in Virginia implemented Title IX regulations dealing with affirmative action and womens' athletics. Of four categories of variables, administrative leadership was described as being the "major vehicle for implementing a federal mandate" (p. 565). Newcombe and Conrad maintained that administrative leadership was most crucial during the early stages of implementation. Hyer (1985) studied three successful cases of affirmative action implementation at senior institutions and drew similar conclusions except to note that administrative leadership may be critical at each stage of change. The power of senior administration to effect change may be limited though. Stassen (1992, 1995) warned that one unintended consequence of presidential decisions to force changes in institutional policies (such as hiring practices) might be to increase resistance by faculty, particularly in those areas the faculty consider to be their prerogative.

Research on the Role of Faculty Involvement

Research on the role of faculty involvement in altering past inequities in the hiring process has focused on the use of the faculty selection committee (Bromert, 1984; Kaplowitz, 1988; Watts, 1993; and Norton & Hundley, 1995). All suggested that faculty search committees be used, and all emphasized the need to provide training for those

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committees. However, research on hiring committees outside of the higher education context, such as in the corporate world, suggests that hiring committees using criteria that favor "fit" with the organization may have a tendency to attract, select, and retain applicants that fall within a restricted range of characteristics (Schneider, 1987). In the absence of external constraints, such as affirmative action regulations, hiring committees may replicate themselves through hiring decisions. Mickelson and Oliver (1991) have argued that such replication may be taking place in higher education because various criteria for success after employment, such as merit, have rarely been validated. They argued that such factors as family obligations and community ties may contribute to minority students opting to attend less prestigious schools thereby making it less likely that they will be perceived as having equal merit compared to other applicants. Such factors may also decrease the probablity that they will ever receive an invitation for interview, or what the authors refer to as "making the short list" (p. 161).

Parsons (1992) reviewed the literature related to concerns over staffing America's community colleges and expressed concern over the "greying of community college faculty" (p. 3). Parsons suggests that this is both an opportunity and a challenge (p. 4). The opportunity lies in the possibility for developing a better demographic "fit" between students and instructors. The challenge lies in the fact that an "insufficient number of women and minorities are selecting higher education as a career" (p. 6). He goes on to note that "simply recruiting new faculty members for the People's College is no longer sufficient" (p. 7).

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Research on the Role of the Academic Market Place

A fourth approach to hiring a more diverse faculty has been to focus on external market factors. Caplow and McGee (1958) refer to their model of the hiring process at the university level as "The Academic Marketplace". They found that prestige played a very important role in where new doctoral graduates found jobs. They also found that fit was a critical determinant. Burke (1988) updated the research done by Caplow and McGee as well as providing a summary of the many studies following Caplow and McGee on aspects related to hiring higher education faculty. Burke found that faculty less involved with research were less mobile compared with more research-oriented faculty, and that female faculty were less likely to be geographically mobile.

In an attempt to address the problems that arise from an inadequate pool of minorities and other under-represented groups, Andrews and Marzano (1990-91) have argued that community colleges need to find a way to "grow their own" minority faculty using incentive-driven education (p. 28). No studies were identified showing the effectiveness of such programs or how they are related to other factors associated with the hiring of a more diverse faculty.

The Problem

Community colleges are faced with the need to hire not only more new faculty, but a more diverse faculty as well. Much of the research on how higher education faculty are hired has focused on research and doctoral-degree granting institutions rather than community colleges. One of the major components of the hiring process that has been researched has been the imposition of external mandates such as state and federal

affirmative action, yet these programs are under increasing attack. Where affirmative action programs have been effective much of the credit goes to senior administration's direct involvement yet senior adminstrators, such as community college presidents, are somewhat limited in their ability to influence policy and procedural changes, particularly when those changes begin to invade areas thought, at least at research and doctoral-degree granting institutions, to be faculty prerogatives.

The role of community college faculty involvement in the hiring process is not well documented. While community college faculty may be becoming more involved in the hiring process, search committees operating without external constraints, such as affirmative action guidelines, may replicate themselves, thus creating a less rather than more diverse faculty.

Another area not well understood in the community college hiring process is the role of market forces in determining the actual compostion of the applicant pools. One proposed solution to increasing the size of the minority pool is to develop "grow your own" programs by providing incentives to develop and nurture potential minority applicants. Although such programs have begun to appear, no research on how effective such programs have been or on the special concerns they may generate within an institution exists. Community college leaders, policy makers, and researchers could benefit from a study of how various strategies relate to hiring a more diverse faculty.

Purpose of the Study

Community colleges are faced with a rapidly changing environment. Faculty hired during the late sixties and early seventies are reaching retirement age, potentially creating

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many new vacancies. Student demographics reflect an increasingly diverse population. Affirmative action, a guiding force for hiring a more diverse faculty, is under attack by legislation and the courts. Community colleges interested in hiring a more diverse full-time faculty will need to seek new models to develop and implement policies, procedures, and strategies to accomplish their goals without the assistance of external forces like affirmative action. An in-depth exploratory case study of an institution that has begun to grapple with these issues can shed light on policies, procedures, and various hiring strategies. Such a study may suggest alternatives to other community colleges facing this increasingly complex problem.

Research Questions

The grand research question addressed by this study was, "How can a community college hire a more diverse full-time faculty?" In order to better answer this question the hiring policies and practices were examined in a specific context. The study was an in-depth exploratory case study of one community college thought to represent an institution unusually committed to the concept of hiring a more diverse full-time faculty. The case study was guided by two subsidiary questions:

1. What are the policies and procedures for the hiring of full-time faculty?
2. What strategies are being considered for hiring a more diverse full-time faculty in the future?

Significance of the Study

At present, community colleges report a disproportionally large number of minority students while minority faculty numbers remain low (Opp & Smith, 1994;

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Owens, Reis & Hall, 1994; Robertson & Frier, 1994; and Reed, 1986). Community colleges are being called upon during this time of replacements to address the imbalance between the large numbers of minority students and the low numbers of minority faculty by significantly increasing minority representation among full-time faculty (Cvancara, 1995). However, this change is occurring at a time when one of the major tools available for addressing equity issues, affirmative action, is under attack. Recent Supreme Court decisions have radically altered the rules for applying affirmative action (Cvancara, 1995). This study is significant because it provides important insights into three areas related to how one community college hires a more diverse faculties: policy, practice, and future research.

With regard to policy issues, this study provides insights on how affirmative action has been perceived as a component in an institution's attempt to develop strategies for hiring a more diverse full-time faculty. There is reason to believe that, even if federal and state governments back away from their commitment to ensuring equity in hiring practices for women and minorities, community colleges, with the strong support of senior administrators, might still develop and implement effective methods to enhance equity in the full-time faculty hiring process.

This study also contributes to our understanding of the faculty search process in a college whose leadership has taken a public position in favor of diversity. It identifies the roles that both faculty and administration play in the hiring process. It also examines how the various institutional structures, personnel, and strategies interrelate. By looking at the problem in an in-depth manner, other administrators and faculty may gain insights on the

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opportunities and barriers they may face when implementing decisions designed to yield a more diverse faculty.

This study also has significant implications for future research. It identifies factors related to the hiring process that are not yet fully understood, particularly at the community college level, such as the need for more information on the effects of low numbers of minorities in the applicant pools. It also contributes to research methodology by extending the traditional case study approach by using conept mapping to a better understanding of how participants conceptualize aspects of the study (Trochim, 1989a, 1989b, 1996b).

Definition of Terms

Throughout this paper several terms are used repeatedly. An attempt has been made to ensure that the various terms are used the same way. The terms are as follows:

Affirmative Action: As Simon (1993) noted, the term affirmative action has been applied to a "cluster of policies" (p. 49) generated by Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and a series of executive orders issued by President Lyndon Johnson. Affirmative action, in the strictest sense of the term, refers to "positive procedural requirements which employers or admission officers must meet to ensure that their pool of candidates is representative of some larger body" (p.49). Simon used open advertising as an example of affirmative action.

Community College: Any public two-year college that offers programs that lead to an associate's degree and is a member of the American Association of Community Colleges is or was considered to be a community college.

Full-Time Faculty: The definition of full-time faculty is or was the one used by Green Acres Community College (pseudonym). Full-time faculty are faculty that teach 30 or more credit hours during the year and are eligible to join the Green Acres employment association (the local full-time faculty bargaining unit). Non-teaching faculty such as counselors and librarians are considered to be full-time if they are on contract for 40 hours per week.

Higher Education: Institutions of higher education include community colleges, proprietary schools, four-year comprehensive colleges, and doctoral-degree granting universities. Any post-secondary institution, public or private, that provides education leading to a certificate or degree is or was considered to be higher education.

Policy: As defined in Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary (1973) is "a high-level overall plan embracing general goals and acceptable procedures" (p. 890).

Procedures: As defined in Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary (1973) are "a series of steps followed in a regular definite order" (p. 917).

Race: "A scientifically discredited term formerly used to describe biologically distinct groups of persons who were alleged to have characteristics of an unalterable nature" (Jary & Jary, 1991, p. 404). The authors go on to note "Social scientists now recognize that race is exclusively a socially constructed categorization that specifies rules for identification of a given group" (p. 204).

Racism: (1)."A set of beliefs, ideologies, and social processes that discriminate against others on the basis of their supposed membership in a so-called racial group" (Jary & Jary, 1991, p. 404).

(2). "[E]ntails the belief that some groups, those of a certain hue, with less power and low status, are inferior; others, of another hue, with greater power and high status, are deemed superior" (Kuper & Kuper, 1996, p. 715).

Racism--Institutional: Sometimes referred to as structural racism. Kuper and Kuper (1996) attribute the term "institutional racism" to Carmichael and Hamiltion (as cited in Kuper & Kuper, 1996). Kuper and Kuper define institutional racism as "institutional rules and procedures which have been established on the basis of the qualifications and standards of the group in power that serve to keep all other groups out" (p. 716).

Sexism: "Behavior, policy, language, or other action of men or women which expresses the institutionalized, systematic, comprehensive, or consistent view that women are inferior" (Kramarae & Treichler, 1985, p. 411).

Strategy: As defined in Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary (1973) is "a careful plan or method" (p. 1150).

Overview of the Study

This thesis consists of six chapters. Chapter Two discusses the literature related to issues associated with affirmative action and faculty search committees. Chapter Three presents and discusses the methodology used in the study. Chapter Four describes the historical context of faculty searches at Green Acres College and the results of the semi-structured interviews used to help generate the statements for the concept mapping. Chapter Five reports the various concept maps generated and the results of the group interpretations of the concept maps. Chapter Six presents a summary of the findings, conclusions, and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The review of literature focuses on research related to the community college faculty hiring process. A brief review of the historical development of federal affirmative action policies – judicial, executive, and legislative – is used to establish a timeline to suggest the potential influence of an externally mandated framework on policies and procedures related to full-time faculty hiring. This section of the review of literature also surveys literature on affirmative action research including studies on both effectiveness and compliance, as well as theories on why affirmative action is resisted. The section concludes with a brief overview of research on racism and sex discrimination. The second section of the review of literature examines research on the role of administrative leadership including theories on organizations as systems and on academic organizations. The third section of the review looks at the role of faculty involvement in the selection process both from the perspective of search committees and research on minority role models. This section also examines what is known about how personnel are selected in the corporate world. The fourth section of the review is on the role of the academic marketplace including research on minority pools of applicants and labor market effects. The chapter concludes with a review of literature relevant to the methodologies used in this research study.

Research on the Role of Affirmative Action

This section begins with a brief history of affirmative action including executive, legislative, and judicial decisions that lead up to the present day. Next, research on

affirmative action is examined including a brief review of some of the literature on the impact of affirmative action along with a review of recent experimental simulation of affirmative action. Finally, this section concludes with brief reviews of literature related to racism and sex discrimination.

A Brief History of Affirmative Action

The initial struggle for racial equality began during the Civil War and shortly thereafter with the passage of the 13th, 14th, and 15th Amendments to the Constitution (Wilson, 1989). Hirschhorn (1976) notes that a number of civil rights statutes were enacted by Congress during what is known as the Reconstruction Period, including the Civil Rights Acts of 1866, 1870, 1871, and 1875. These acts were struck down in 1896 by the Supreme Court in a number of different cases leading to the development of what was to become known as the "separate, but equal doctrine" in Plessy v. Ferguson (1896) that permitted segregated facilities as long as they were of equal quality.

Wilson (1989) argued that the second period of affirmative action started in 1941. The Julius Rosenwald Fund reported that in all of America's predominately white colleges and universities there were only two tenured black professors. The Fund supplied the names of 200 blacks with Ph.D.s to the institutions and urged that more black faculty be hired. None were. The Fund then offered to pay the salaries of any black faculty hired, with the result that one was hired by the University of Chicago and another at Olivet College in Michigan.

In 1954 the Court finally overturned Plessy with Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, KS (1954). The Court found that separate but equal facilities were inherently

unequal. Differentiating Brown from previous discrimination cases, the Brown case relied heavily on the use of sociological evidence to support various aspects of the discrimination argument. The plaintiffs were no longer required to demonstrate that specific individuals were harmed by specific discriminatory acts; it was sufficient to show that groups had not been treated equitably based on statistical differences.

A year later a second Brown case was heard by the Court, Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, KS (1955). This case dealt with the issue of implementation. The Court held that gradual relief was sufficient, but that courts should act with deliberate speed. According to Viera (1990), "by 1964 only about one-third of the Southern school districts had desegregated, and a large portion of those were in border states or were in districts in which only a token number of blacks went to school with whites. In the deep South less than 1% of the black children attended integrated schools" (p. 72).

The first major federal legislation of the postreconstruction era related to racial inequities is the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (1964). Title VI of this act prohibited discrimination against any persons on the grounds of race, color, or national origin in programs receiving federal funds, including prohibitions against discrimination on the basis of race in student admissions, access to courses and programs, and student policies and their application. Executive Order 11246 (1965) provided a program of equal employment opportunity in government employment regardless of race, creed, color, or national origin. Executive Order 11375 (1967) added the classification of sex to the above categories.

In December of 1971, Revised Order Number 4 (1971b) was issued by the Office

of Federal Contract Compliance, Department of Labor with regard to the implementation of Executive Order 11246. Order Number 4 required that each contractor with 50 or more employees and a contract in excess of $50,000 develop and maintain a written affirmative action plan within 120 days of receipt of the contract. This plan, still in effect, required the contractors to determine whether women and minorities are "underutilized" based on their expected availability. The contractors had to respond to a set of specific result-oriented procedures and to commit themselves to apply a "good faith effort." Many community colleges, unlike many large universities that receive federal grants for research, do not receive $50,000 or more in federal contracts and thus Order Number 4 does not apply. Some community colleges have chosen to comply with the order on a volunteer basis. The exact number of community colleges who have chosen voluntary compliance has not been determined.

The second major piece of federal legislation was Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 as amended by the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972 (1972). Affirmative action was not required unless charges had been filed. In October of 1972, J. Stanley Pottinger laid out a set of guidelines that distinguished between nondiscrimination and affirmative action. Nondiscrimination required the elimination of all existing discriminatory conditions, whether purposeful or inadvertent. Affirmative action required the employer to take additional efforts to recruit, employ, and promote qualified members of groups formerly excluded, even if that exclusion could not be traced to particular discriminatory actions on the part of the employer. According to Orlans (1992), Pottinger then informed "all colleges and universities that those with federal contracts must comply"

(p. 150). Again, it is not clear how many community colleges have been subject to federally required affirmative action.

Criticism by the academic community was swift. Within a year over 150 cases of reverse discrimination were filed with the Office of Civil Rights (OCR). According to Orlans (1992), "everyone criticized OCR. It did too little to please affirmative action supporters, too much to please opponents, and both sides agreed it was incompetent" (p. 151). Many of the OCR staff did not have college degrees and seemed to show very little understanding of the higher education environment. Approval of institutional plans also involved lengthy delays. Orlans reported that by September of 1976 only 33 of 863 institutional plans had been approved. Orlans reports that at Johns Hopkins eight reviews were conducted in four years. Staff changed, documents were never read, or if read were not understood. Sometimes documents were lost and "the university had to supply some of them nine times" (p. 152).

More than twenty years after Brown (1954) and more than ten years after the Civil Rights Act of 1964 a number of states still maintained a dual system of higher education, one for whites and another for blacks. Most of these twenty states were located in the South, but also included Pennsylvania. On April 1, 1977 Judge John Pratt in the U.S. District Court for the District of Columbia issued an order in the case of Adams v. Califano (1977) directing the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare to require these states to file acceptable plans for desegregation of their institutions of higher education within 60 days. These plans needed to include numerical goals and timetables. This same judge ordered those plans to increase black enrollment at predominately white

institutions and to strengthen black colleges. Orlans (1992) called the guidelines issued by Secretary Califano "among the most comprehensive affirmative action goals for black students -- and faculty -- prepared by any agency" (p. 149). These goals included institutions at all levels including two-year colleges. As Orlans goes on to note, "of course, these goals have not been met" (p. 149).

Following Judge Pratt's ruling, the Supreme Court took a decidedly different turn in 1978 in Regents of the University of California v. Bakke (1978). The Supreme Court addressed the issue of whether racial classification may be employed by institutions of higher education to give special treatments to minorities. In this case 16 of 100 seats in each class of medical school at Davis were set aside for minority applicants. Allen Bakke was denied admission and sued, claiming that because his test scores were higher than some of the minorities who were admitted the set-asides violated his civil rights under the equal protection clause. The Supreme Court found for the plaintiff in a somewhat unusual 4 to 4 split with no majority ruling, arguing that the state had not demonstrated that there were no alternative means for establishing a diverse student body.

By the late 1980s the Court was already starting to lay the groundwork for no longer using statistical evidence to demonstrate the existence of discrimination. In City of Richmond v. J. A. Croson (1989) the Supreme Court ruled that the city had failed to demonstrate specific evidence of discrimination. Viera (1990) said "reliance on a comparison of percentage of minorities in the general population to the percentages of prime contracts awarded to minority businesses was misplaced since statistical comparisons to the general population are inappropriate where special qualifications are

required" (p. 105). The findings of this case suggest that because community college faculty are required to have special qualification, such as advanced college degrees or other specialized training, assumptions that minority faculty be representative of the general population that they serve may not be legally defendable.

Some recent Supreme Court decisions seem to indicate that the court has begun to move away from support for affirmative action as a method to be used to redress past inequities (Cvancara, 1995). In May 1995 the Supreme Court in Greene v. Podberesky (1995) let stand an earlier decision, Podbereskey v Kirman (1994), involving a race-based scholarship program at the University of Maryland. The Court found insufficient justification for maintaining a separate merit scholarship for which only blacks were eligible. The concept of group discrimination, based on membership in a particular group as compared with a specific act of discrimination against a specific individual, was successfully challenged in a 5 to 4 decision by the Supreme Court in the case Adarand v. Pena, returned June 12, 1995. It is not clear what this ruling means or what effect it will have on discrimination law suits.

The Supreme Court further clarified its position on the use of race as a factor in admissions when it ruled in Texas v. Hopwood (1996) that the Law School at the University of Texas at Austin could not use race as a factor in admissions to the school. The Hopwood case is similar in some respects to Bakke (1979), except that in the Bakke there was some indication that race could be one of the factors in admissions, but not the only factor. The Hopwood case suggests that the Court has come to believe that any use of race in admissions constitutes a violation of the equal protection clause of the U.S.

Constitution. The Hopwood decision is currently under appeal.

What is much more clear about the future of affirmative action are the results of a California voter referendum, Proposition 209, that bans the use of affirmative action in such matters as the hiring and promotion of faculty at all state institutions, including the vast California community college system. The voters approved Proposition 209 by a 54% to 46% margin. Morello (1996) reported that as many as 20 states are now considering similiar bans. Morello reported that various legal challenges were filed immediately.

Affirmative Action Research

Affirmative action has been a highly publicized process in hiring. The research on affirmative action has been divided into two parts: actual impact and potential impact based on simulated implementations. Part one examines several studies on the impact of affirmative action as it has been implemented. Part two focuses on related research on the potential impact of future implementation.

Impact Studies. Several studies have assessed the impact of affirmative action programs in higher education. The research addressed several questions: Has affirmative action been perceived to be effective? If so, what factors may have contributed to that effectiveness? Should affirmative action programs be voluntary or mandatory? And, what other effects have occurred when affirmative action was implemented?

In response to the first question Washington and Harvey (1989) reviewed related literature and concluded that affirmative action has had very little effect on the percentage of minority faculty serving in higher education. The authors argued the low percentages

"reflect considerable resistance to affirmative action that has been manifested in some quarters of predominately white institutions of higher education" (p. 13). The authors then reported on an in-depth case study done at Antioch College where the numbers of black faculty have begun to approach the proportion of black students. The authors concluded that the two key factors contributing to the increase of black faculty were administrative leadership commitment to affirmative action and vigorous on-campus advocates who served on search committees.

Scollay et al. (1989) used a mail survey of 252 affirmative action officers at research and doctoral-degree granting institutions achieving a response rate of 60% (150). The seventy-five item survey instrument requested both objective data and subjective perceptions about the impact of affirmative action programs on the sex and race compositions of the faculty and administrative ranks of their institutions. After combining "slightly agree" and "strongly agree" responses, the authors found that approximately two-thirds of the respondents perceived a substantial impact from affirmative action on gender composition of both faculty and administration. There was no consensus on changes in racial compositions. The authors used percentage of female administrators, female faculty, nonwhite administrators, and nonwhite faculty as independent variables to measure the institutional-level effect on the dependent variable of perception of impact. The only institutional-level effect to be statistically significant was that officers at institutions with above median-level of female faculty perceived more impact from affirmative action programs. The authors concluded that "a relatively small absolute representation of women and minorities produces a substantive impact" (p. 259). This

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study shows that more women and minorities on faculty search committees might result in a larger number of women and minorities selected.

Atcherson and Conyers (1989) surveyed 259 higher education affirmative action/ equal employment opportunity (AA/EEO) personnel from across the United States. They found that 53% of the AA/EEO officer report to the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of the organization. They concluded that "support from the institution's top officials has been considered essential to implementation of an Affirmative Action plan" (p. 20). They concluded there was considerably "less support for affirmative action in working units than at the higher administrative levels and less support for hiring of minorities at all levels than support for hiring of women" (p. 21).

With regard to whether or not compliance to affirmative action should be voluntary or required, Kelsey (1988) found that most who were surveyed felt that it should not be voluntary. In a questionnaire to the affirmative action officers at approximately 175 U.S. public junior and community colleges, Kelsey found that 33% agreed while 62% disagreed with the statement that compliance should be voluntary. The way in which the results were reported makes it impossible to determine if the larger percentage felt that compliance should be mandatory.

Stassen (1992) developed a conceptual framework for understanding the relationship between white faculty attitude and behavior. Stassen surveyed 941 white faculty at six institutions of higher education. She hypothesized that institutional factors can serve to trigger attitudes (either increase or decrease) that might otherwise remain dormant. Such factors may be either in the form of perceived threats to faculty

prerogatives, a racially charged atmosphere on campus, or institutional norms that clearly support attitudes towards multiculturalism. In other words, context might affect racial attitude. She concluded that institutional context did play a critical role in shaping individual behavior on matters of race. However, in her recommendations, she cautioned that administrative leadership must take into account the possibility that threats to faculty perceptions of status quo may activate negative attitudes and that leaders must "directly address the ambivalence and complexity of white faculty behaviors" (p. 383).

When affirmative action is implemented, does it generate a sense of "backlash" or overt resistance? Taylor (1995) utilized data from the 1990 General Social Survey to study whether the white backlash to workplace affirmative action is myth or reality. Her study drew on the answers of 641 white respondents to questions on workplace affirmative action. She concluded that whites whose employers practice affirmative action are less prejudiced and are

> somewhat more likely to support race-targeted intervention. And they are more likely to hold beliefs that provide a rationale for race-targeted remedies -- beliefs that discrimination exists, that black Americans do not have their share of societal influence, that black disadvantage derives from systemic factors and not from personal deficiencies. (p. 1406)

Kuran (1996) offers another interpretation of the data. Kuran argued that preference falsification was a deliberate act of misrepresentation because of perceived social pressure. Kuran maintained that one of the effects of this misrepresentation is the preservation of widely disliked structures. Kuran argued that affirmative action was an example of preference falsification that resulted in a distortion of public opinion and a corruption of public discourse. Thus, Kuran might argue that the respondents in Taylor's study perceived that affirmative action was important to

their employers and that they, the employees, would be better off by responding in a way that they had learned the employers wanted them to respond.

With respect to impact studies, affirmative action has probably had only a limited effect on the hiring of more minority faculty. Where affirmative action has been effective, such successes are probably due, at least in part, to strong administrative support and vocal interest groups. Some believe that affirmative action should not be voluntary. However, it is possible that mandatory affirmative action triggers adverse responses from higher education faculty who consider hiring and promotion matters to be a faculty prerogative. Potential unintended effects of affirmative action are unclear. Evidence suggests that when initial minimum numbers are met under mandatory requirements, little incentive exists to continue recruitment efforts.

Experimental Simulations. If the data on the impact of affirmative action leave many questions not fully answered, a review of recent literature reveals a need for better information to guide future research based on how affirmative action is actually implemented. One of the difficulties with some of the research to date has been that various attempts to understand the consequences of the implementation of affirmative action have been done in laboratories or experimental simulations. Affirmative action may actually be implemented in ways vastly different from the simulations, leaving some of the fundamental assumptions of these studies open to question (Turner & Pratkanis, 1994b).

One of the questions that researchers have attempted to answer using simulations or laboratory settings has been whether or not affirmative action programs create stigmatization. In other words, will there be a perception that the recipients of affirmative action programs will be less worthy than if those recipients were hired based solely on their "merit"? Major, Feinstein,

and Crocker (1994) examined the reactions of 100 undergraduates to being selected or rejected for a leadership role to determine if preference based primarily on membership in a group created ambiguity about the merit. The students were given a bogus measure of leadership ability identified as the CET. Prior to being assigned a role, students were asked to rate their own leadership effectiveness. They were randomly assigned to a leadership role based solely on gender, solely on "merit," or based on both gender and "merit," but were led to believe that some criteria were actually being followed to determine grouping. In the "merit" and gender and "merit" conditions, the experimenter conspicuously set aside the CET and did not score it. The various groups (composed of a leader and a follower) were assigned the task of recreating abstract drawings. The authors found that students in the merit-only condition attributed their selection more to the CET scores and ability and less to gender: "subjects chosen to be leaders solely on the basis of sex attributed their selection significantly less to their personal merit and significantly more to their sex than did subjects chosen solely on the basis of merit" (p. 133). This is of particular concern to the authors who worried that individuals who live under a "suspicion of inferiority" may be stigmatized by such selections (p. 133).

Dietz-Uhler and Murrell (1993) studied 138 undergraduate students in an attempt to examine four different explanatory models for resistance to affirmative action. Students were asked to simulate the role of an admissions officer and accept or reject various candidates. The admission procedure identified for the students was varied using either set-asides (quotas), diversity (race and gender are considered to be important), or "standard policy" (namely that the university will not discriminate on the basis of gender, race, religious, or ethnic background). The authors found because of negative attitudes towards a specific target group (females), individuals

within that group were evaluated more negatively. The authors noted the difficulty in generalizing results when actual admission officers have had a good deal of training and experience.

In a related experiment Doverspike and Arthur (1995) asked 235 college student volunteers to complete "a scenario study involving reactions to having received a fellowship position based on affirmative action" (p. 181). The variables in the study included race, gender, type of affirmative action ("hard" or "soft"), and qualifications (less or equally qualified). The results indicated that "although sex-based affirmative action may result in certain social psychological costs for females, the same effect may not occur for blacks" (p. 198). In other words, the negative attitudes engendered in giving women special treatment found by Dietz-Uhler and Murrell (1993) may not be extended to blacks when they are given special treatment.

Summers (1995) studied 80 continuing education students in college to determine attitudes towards three different hypothetical methods of affirmative action. The results showed that the continuing education students were least favorable toward proposals that called for applicants of certain groups to receive higher scores because of membership in a specific group and most favorable towards providing special training to members of special groups if needed. Support for quotas was intermediate. Men were found to be less favorable towards quotas than women.

An important note of caution needs to be made. Nacoste and Hummels (1994), like the simulation studies reported above, employed students, often undergraduate students. The authors emphasized important limitations on all such studies where students are used in a role for which they were not adequately trained, nor for which they had adequate real world experience. Therefore, the generalizablity to a broader population in such cases must be limited.

Racism

Deeply embedded in the implementation of affirmative action is the question of the extent to which negative racial and gender attitudes of the past continue to influence decisions in today's environment. As Smith (1985) noted, "Tolerance evolves, like culture or language. Our regard of others is rarely immutable; and it often depends as much on the milieu in which our attitudes develop, as on the particular out group in question" (p. 205).

One of the earliest works to draw America's attention to the continuing problem of racism was Myrdal's The American Dilemma (Myrdal, 1944). Myrdal argued that white people's attitudes in the United States directly contradicted other deeply held American values, such as the principle of egalitarianism, creating a "dilemma" that in the long run should be resolved in favor of the egalitarian principle. There seems to be a general consensus that racism, particularly the segregation described by Myrdal, has declined significantly in the United States since the 1950s (Firebaugh & Davis, 1988).

Klugel and Smith (1983) studied white resistance to affirmative action using a phone survey of 1,596 cases. They tested the thesis that self-interest was a contributing factor to resistance. They concluded that "white opposition to affirmative action reflects a certain naivete about the American opportunity structure. Many whites did not support affirmative action because they did not believe that blacks stood at any current disadvantage in opportunity to whites" (p. 815). They went on to note that "many whites do not (perhaps will not) see opportunity in any other way than as equal and based on individual effort, and consequently see affirmative action programs as unnecessary" (p. 815).

There are people who act like racists, but do not consider themselves to be racists. Studs

Terkel's book (1992), Race: How Blacks and Whites Think and Feel About the American Obsession provides a pointed example. Terkel quoted an extreme case involving a man described by Terkel as "a small-time collector for the syndicate" (p. 5). Terkel observed this person referring to "'shines,' 'spades,' 'jigs,' 'loads of coal.' When asked whether he considered himself a racist, he is indignant: "Hell, no! Did you hear me say 'nigger'? Never!" (p. 5). If such clear examples of people who are racists can hide behind self-delusion, is it possible that otherwise well-intentioned people can also delude themselves about their racial attitudes and behaviors?

Even among well-intentioned white Americans who express a desire to "ameliorate the consequences of racism and poverty" (Gaertner & Dovido, 1986, p. 208), there is nevertheless a special type of ambivalence that is not always conscious. In an early study, Dutton and Lake (1973) studied 80 white college students who described themselves as relatively unprejudiced. These students were led to believe either through false feedback (high-threat condition) that they were actually prejudiced or were led to believe that they were neutral (low-threat condition). Following the laboratory experiment the students were panhandled by either a black or white confederate. The black panhandler received more money from subjects under the high-threat condition than from those under the low-threat. No difference was observed for the white panhandler. Dutton and Lake called this phenomena reverse discrimination and concluded that

> Reverse discrimination then, is viewed as an attempt by whites who think racial prejudice is undesirable and who are threatened by the possibility that they themselves might be prejudiced to prove themselves through their behavior toward a black that they in fact are not prejudiced. (p. 99)

More recent research by Murrell, Dietz-Uhler, Dovido, Gaertner, and Drout (1994) found that policies directed at blacks were "resisted more strongly than were policies for the physically

handicapped or elderly persons" (p. 80), suggesting that negative attitudes toward affirmative action may be tied to the effects of racism. The authors argued that "reconceptualizing affirmative action policies in terms of the beneficial consequences in terms of a common group identity would focus on the need for the society as a whole in meeting the demands of the future, more diverse work force" (p. 84).

One of the implications of the research conducted by Gaertner and others is that any researcher looking into the hiring process must be sensitive to the possibility that even well-intentioned people may distort their responses in either direction without being aware of the distortion. Such distortions may increase the likelihood that a minority applicant will receive the position. The question would then become, "What is the probability that the minority would be retained for any period of time?"

Sex Discrimination

A review of the research on sex- or gender-based discrimination suggests that prejudice based on attitudes toward the inferiority of women has also evolved. Swim, Aikin, Hall, and Hunter (1995) argued that "like modern racism, modern sexism is characterized by the denial of continued discrimination, antagonism toward women's demands, and lack of support for policies designed to help women" (p. 199). Eberhardt and Fiske (1994) noted that "social psychologists must be particularly careful in generalizing from reactions toward affirmative action policies for women to reactions toward these policies for blacks (and vice versa)" (p. 207). They went on to argue that because males and females are less segregated than whites and blacks and tend to have more experience with one another, the resultant stereotypes developed by men about women were likely to be more complex and have more subtypes as compared with stereotypes about blacks.

Stromquist (1993) examined core federal legislation regarding discrimination based on sex or gender. One of the outcomes identified as critical to attainment of equity was the access women had to educational programs. One of the findings was that Title IX of the Educational Amendments Act of 1972 eliminated quotas that restricted women's entry into professional fields such as medicine and law. Stromquist reported that although the proportion of women degree-holders has increased in all degree categories, the distribution of degrees across fields tended to follow traditional gender lines. The author concluded that "women continue to enroll in vocational fields that lead to easy employment but also low wages" (p. 387). The author maintained that the federal government has played a "reluctant and primarily symbolic role in the efforts to attain gender equity" (p. 379).

A review of recent opinions stored in the Chronicle of Higher Education databank on affirmative action seems to suggest that affirmative action has become almost synonymous with racial rather than gender issues. Six out of six of the articles stored for 1996 linked affirmative action to race. The shift of focus to race at the expense of gender may indicate a perceived leveling of the playing field for women. Magner (1996) reported on a study called "The American Faculty in Transition: A First Look at the New Academic Generation" based on data collected by a survey in the fall of 1992. In total, 482,963 faculty members were surveyed. Approximately one-third of the faculty members were in their first seven years of teaching. The newer group of teachers differed significantly from their older colleagues. Women reportedly make up 41% of the new-generation of faculty, compared with 28% of the older group. One of the authors of the study, Robert K. Seal of the Stevens Institute of Technology, is quoted as saying, "The new generation is diversifying along gender lines, but is not diversifying as quickly along ethnic lines"

(p. 2). A second author of the study, Jack H. Schuster of Claremont Graduate School, reported that the findings about women are "both encouraging and discouraging" (p. 2), encouraging in the sense that the overall ratio of women faculty is increasing, but discouraging in the sense that a third of the women faculty are not in a tenure-track position.

It would not be appropriate to conclude that gender issues have disappeared in higher education, but rather that the focus has recently shifted to issues other than equity in hiring. It should also be noted that while the courts have begun to back away from race-based affirmative action, there have been important recent findings increasing women's access to higher education, particularly in formerly all-male academies such as Virginia Military Institute and the Citadel (Murray, 1996).

In summary, support for policies designed to alleviate past inequities at the federal governmental level seems to have reached a high-water mark in the 1960s and early 1970s. This support related directly to faculty hiring, but it also provided a legal environment or context that likely influenced the hiring process indirectly as well, though it is difficult to judge without more empirical data. If Proposition 209 holds up under legal challenges and if other states follow California's lead and strike down affirmative action laws, then institutions committed to the concepts behind affirmative action must be prepared to proceed on their own.

Research on the implementation of affirmative action has stressed the importance of administrative support. Research in experimental situations showing a lack of support by students may not accurately transfer over the real world situations. Finally, there seem to be differences between racial discrimination and sexual or gender discrimination.

Research on the Role of Administrative Leadership

A sizable body of research exists on organizations. Institutions of higher education may or may not be similar in organizational behavior to other institutions such as business and industry. The research described below discusses some of the similarities and differences between the academic world and that of business, beginning with a review of selected theories on academic organizations as they apply to faculty hiring and diversity.

The organizational structure of higher education has evolved from its medieval roots (Duryea, 1991). According to Duryea, the managerial role of the college president has increased since the turn of the twentieth century. Concurrent with the administrative expansion of responsibilities has come a specialization of knowledge that has left departments with much greater autonomy. In addition, according to Duryea, there has been a bottom up growth in the role of the faculty member through the formalization of "senates, councils, and associated committees" (p. 12). Duyrea noted that this diffusion of academic governance has been "accompanied by the intrusion of external forces" (p. 14), such as professional disciplinary associations, accrediting agencies, and state and federal governments. Duyrea concluded that the various changes in the governance of academic organizations has resulted in organizational inadequacies that result in uncertainty about how academic organizations will operate in the future. The concept of external forces influencing or having an impact on the organization of higher education and the decisions that such organizations make is important to this research.

The history of research on organizational behavior has developed along several different lines each with differing assumptions. Sergiovanni (1986) described the period of scientific management (early 20th century) as one where the primary concern was efficiency through a

division of labor and where there was a clearly defined "best way" (p. 4). The "best way" involved the development of a system of controls that presumed visible standards by which students and faculty could then be held accountable. The origin of scientific management is generally traced back to the work of Frederick Taylor in the early 1900s (cited in Sergiovanni, 1986).

Bolman and Deal (1991) refer to a concept similar to scientific management, but call it the "structural frame" (p. 41). Like Taylor, Bolman and Deal also trace the history of the structural frame back to the work of Weber at midcentury (cited in Bolman & Deal, 1991) who described how bureaucracies develop if the rational principles of scientific management are carried to their logical conclusions. In the structural frame there are, according to Bolman and Deal, specific structural designs to provide for a division of labor and coordination of work by the various elements. Problems occur because of "inappropriate structures or inadequate systems and can be resolved through restructuring or developing new systems" (p. 48).

There are a number of criticisms of scientific management or the structural frame. March (1986) argued that some bureaucracy was necessary to make certain that organizations did the minor tasks that need to be done for the organization to survive. "Much of what distinguishes a good bureaucracy from a bad one is how well it accomplishes the trivia of day-to-day relations with clients and day-to-day problems in maintaining and operating its technology" (p. 23). In other words, people do not work well if their paychecks do not come on time.

Baldridge, Curtis, Ecker, and Riley (1991) described various distinguishing characteristics of academic organizations. Unlike business organizations that are goal-oriented, the authors theorized that goal ambiguity was "one of the chief characteristics of academic organizations" (p.

31). The authors cited research by sociologists that suggested professionals demand autonomy; have divided loyalties, have a strong sense of tension between professional values and bureaucratic expectations; and demand peer evaluations. Drawing heavily on the research of Cohen and March's Leadership and Ambiguity (1974), the authors concluded academic organizations tend to be "organized anarchies" (p. 32). The concepts of goal ambiguity, faculty autonomy, and tension between faculty values and bureaucratic expectations may prove to be important to this study.

Weick (1991) developed a theory widely recognized as "loosely coupled systems theory." By loose coupling, Weick intended to convey an image "that coupled events are responsive, but that each event also preserves its own identity and some evidence of its physical or logical separateness" (p. 105). Loose coupling includes the concept that systems may be minimally interdependent. Systems that were more interdependent or interrelated were referred to as tightly coupled systems. Weick argued that the difference between loose and tight coupling lay in the degree to which the outcome and processes were inspected and evaluated. Loosely coupled systems are marked by a lack of inspection and evaluation.

March (1986) found that metaphors like "loose coupling" were pessimistic about the importance of administrators. He went on to describe what he referred to as two types of errors that a manager might make when faced with a problem, a "false positive" (p. 28) -- an attempt to control the future when no real control is possible - and a "false negative" -- a belief that control is not possible when, in fact, it might be. According to March, "either type of error is possible, but the social costs of the first seem small, relative to the second" (p. 28)

Sergiovanni (1986) described the second phase of the history of organizational research as

attempts to put the emphasis on the "human side of the organization" (p. 5). The issue was still one of control, but the emphasis was on specialization and getting the right person in the right job. Sergiovanni argued that "concepts of collegiality in universities and shared decision-making in schools are allied with this view" (p. 5).

Bolman and Deal (1991) described a second model similar to that described by Sergiovanni, the "human resource frame" (p. 117) which included such concepts as implementation of self-management teams and organizational democracy. Faculty search committees can be considered an example of the human resource frame in action. The purpose of such committees would then be to provide for a proper fit between applicant and position.

Sergiovanni (1986) described the third phase, a more modern phase, as the "political perspective" (p. 6). Schools, according to Sergiovanni, are open systems that interact with the environments in which they are located. Sergiovanni suggested that the political perspective was one of processes dealing with bargaining, consensus, and sensitivity to external forces. He further noted that the political perspective did not assume rationality in the decision-making process. "Administrators do not seek optimal solutions to the problems they face but seek solutions that will satisfy a variety of demands" (p. 7).

Bolman and Deal's (1991) equivalent to Sergiovanni's political perspective was what they called the "political frame" (p. 181). Bolman and Deal described conflict as that which grew out of long standing differences and scarcity of resources. In such cases, "power inevitably becomes a key resource" (p. 187). According to Bolman and Deal organizational goals grow out of "an ongoing process of negotiation and interaction among key players in the system" (p. 189). They identify eight significant forms of power: (a) position of power (authority); (b) information and

expertise; (c) control of rewards; (d) coercive power (the ability to punish); (e) alliances and networks; (f) access to and control of agendas; (g) control of meaning and symbols; and, (h) personal power (persons with the ability to articulate a vision). Bolman and Deal pointed out that in the political frame, conflict is not necessarily a problem.

Bolman and Deal quoted from Pfeffer's (cited in Bolman & Deal, 1991) 1978 work on process of participative management from a political frame. Bolman and Deal cited as an example how a university administration might have dealt with women in a university setting vocally demanding equality.

> The administration might create a "Committee on the Status of Women," schedule occasional meetings for the committee with top administrators, and provide it with a secretary and a research assistant. The administration might put highly vocal women on the committee and hope that they will focus their energies on the internal problems of the committee rather than on changing the university. If the strategy is successful, the administration can defuse a potential problem, while using the committee as public evidence of the university's commitment to equality and fairness. (p. 228)

What Sergiovanni (1986) called the political perspective and what he referred to as the "cultural perspective" (p. 7) considerably overlap. In the cultural perspective the emphasis is placed more on "understanding than explaining and on making sense of events and activities than on describing" (p. 7). According to Sergiovonni, the object of leadership under the cultural perspective is "the string of human consciousness, the interpretation and enhancement of meanings, the articulation of key cultural strands, and the linking of organizational members to them" (p. 8).

Bolman and Deal (1991) describe a frame similar to Sergiovanni's cultural perspective that they call the "symbolic frame" (p. 241). Bolman and Deal suggest that myth plays a critical role in the cultural frame. Myths are not subject to verification. Myths "maintain solidarity and

cohesion" (p. 254), and myths can help deal with contradiction. An example of a myth the authors cite is the myth that "a certified teacher is a good teacher" (p. 304). Other aspects of Bolman and Deal's symbolic frame are such things as symbols and rituals. Rituals include organizational events where meaning is created or repeated. Two examples provided by Bolman and Deal are regular meetings of committees where individuals are given the opportunity to debate the same issues over and over year after year and training programs that produce little improvement but "socialize participants into the management culture and they certify the graduates as having special status" (p. 265).

Bolman and Deal (1991) observed that "organizations are full of managers who see one or two frames as right and all others as wrong" (p. 322). They go on to note that "all organizations contain multiple realities and every event can be interpreted in a number of ways" (p. 322). Bolman and Deal developed an instrument (Leadership Orientations) to identify self-perceptions by managers of the type of frame preferred. Pawlas (1996) used this instrument to study how elementary, middle, and secondary principals in Florida perceived their own leadership orientation frames. A total of 113 mailed surveys were returned (92%). Pawlas reported that more than half of all principals reported using multiple frames with human resources being the dominant choice followed by structural, symbolic, and finally political.

Davis (1996) used the same instrument to study gender differences in self-reported leadership orientations using secondary school principals in Pennsylvania. The author matched all female secondary principals in the state (63) with 63 randomly selected male secondary principals with a total response rate of 78%. Davis found that both genders reported using the human resource frame most frequently. Davis also reported that females were more likely than males to

use human resource, symbolic, and political frames. Durocher (1995) also used the Leadership Orientation survey to study 70 school administrators who had been identified as nationally recognized school leaders. Durocher also found that the human resource frame to be the most predominant.

Harlow (1994) used interview and questionnaire data to study how 20 superintendents in Washington state public schools described a critical leadership incident and how they defined leadership. Harlow reported that the superintendents were more likely report using the political frame to describe critical incidents and the human resource frame for describing leadership. Superintendents with less experience were more likely to use a structural frame in describing a critical incident whereas more experienced superintendents were more likely to use a political frame.

Bates (1986) described what he considered to be one of the key aspects of cultural myths of schools, metaphors. Bates argued that a critical analysis of the metaphors used was necessary to articulate the underlying beliefs and actions of an organization. Bates noted that a metaphor of the machine or mechanical system is often applied to education. Certainly "loosely coupled" systems (Weick, 1991) utilizes the metaphor of education as a mechanical system. The term "fit" seems to imply the metaphor of a mechanical system as well.

Despite Duryea's (1991) contention that the organization of higher education may be substantially different from business, important ideas may be found by studying recent theories on organizations as systems as developed for the business environment, particularly those associated with total quality management (TQM). Cole (1995) proposed a systematic methodology for effecting TQM in higher education decision-making with particular attention paid to improvement

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in the faculty selection process. Cole defined what he considered to be one of the critical processes in the selection of faculty outlined by Marchese (1987) and developed a method for continued process improvement in defining the job. Cole maintained that a well-designed process would eliminate 80% to 90% of the problems that occur. He did not indicate whether a better process would result in a more diverse faculty, nor did he seem aware of the finding by Hill (1987) that a job description has little effect on the process. One of the key elements to continuous improvement, according to Cole, was the establishment of indicators of success and the determination of how these indicators will be measured. Cole concluded that the establishment of this key element should be left to the search committee.

Bolman and Deal (1991) argued that the four frames - structural, human resource, political, and symbolic - should not be considered as separate ways of understanding organizations, but should, rather, be used in an integrated way to describe differing images of an organization. Bensimon (1992) has advanced a theory that parallels that of Bolman and Deal (1991) and Sergiovanni (1986). She describes an organizational frame as a "distinctive cognitive lens that influence what leaders see and do" (p. 24). For Bensimon the parallel to the structural frame is the bureaucratic frame marked by clear organizational goals, a closed system insulated from outside influences, and leaders who have the power to make and execute decisions. The parallel to the human resource frame is the collegial frame marked by consensus, democratic-decision making, and interpersonal relationships. Bensimon uses the term "political frame" in ways similar to Bolman and Deal (1991) to describe organizations that focus on power relationships, conflict, and the important role played by external interest groups. Finally, Bensimon uses the term "symbolic frame" to describe organizations based on systems of shared

experiences and socially constructed truth.

In summary, theories on institutions of higher education purport that higher education organizations have developed from bureaucratic models, to collegial environments, to systems of shared meaning. Bolman and Deal (1991) and Bensimon (1992) have presented theoretical constructs that suggest that the best way to understand academic organizations is to use a multiple-frame perspective where phenomena are understood through different lenses.

Research on the Role of Faculty Involvement

This section examines literature on the role of faculty involvement in the faculty hiring process. The first section focuses on the hiring process in a higher education context including research on the use of search committees in institutions of higher education, minority role models, and will conclude with a review of related literature on personnel selection in a corporate context.

Higher Education Search Committees

Marchese (1987) developed a model for higher education faculty searches. The author theorized that there were eight critical steps or processes in faculty selection. Summarized and paraphrased, the steps identified by the author are:

1. Rethink the vacancy,
2. Establish a search committee,
3. Define the position to be filled,
4. Conduct the search,
5. Screen the applicants,
6. Interview the candidates (those applicants who made it through the screening process),
7. Make (and/or recommend) a particular candidate, and

8. Support the candidate once they have been hired.

Other authors, including Watts (1993), Coady (1990), and Lawhorn and Ennis (1995), have proposed other similar models and strategies for selecting quality faculty. All follow the general pattern outlined by Marchese (1987). Watts (1993) specifically applied the model to community colleges. Watts noted that most department chairs are both anxious and overwhelmed by the task of hiring a new faculty member. This author proposed that the procedures and processes should "remove much of the guesswork and uncertainty from the process and dramtically increase the chances of selecting a truly outstanding faculty member" (p. 3). The procedures and policies Watts suggested were nearly identical to those proposed by Marchese (1987) with the addition of two steps:

1. Prepare the advertisement for the position, and

2. Conduct reference checks.

Watts did not include a step about developing support for the newly hired faculty member. Watts concluded that if the steps identified were followed, department chairs would experience a decrease in uncertainty and an increase in confidence that the newly hired faculty member would meet or exceed the requirements for the position. Neither Watts (1993) nor Marchese (1987) provided data to support their conclusions nor did they recommend any methods for evaluating the effectiveness of the process.

Coady (1990) also focused on the community college hiring process. She provided more details on specific aspects of the process such as questions to be asked during the interview phase, including "What are the last three books you have read?" She claimed that this question had become a favorite of the search committees she reported on because it gives "genuine insight into

the individual's range of interests, currency, and intellectuality" (p. 8). Coady also described a teaching simulation involving students. She noted that the evaluation system for the simulated teaching experience was informal and involved soliciting feedback from the students about the applicants' performance. Coady was quite enthusiastic about the use of such simulations. She reported that student reaction "has been highly satisfying" (p. 14). Coady concluded that the techniques she described offer "a more solid base for decisions than does the traditional interview and resume" (p. 14).

Lawhorn and Ennis (1995) noted that "recruiting and selecting faculty members is a challenging, expensive, and time-consuming task for two-year institutions" (p. 349). Their study was based on the process used to evaluate 59 candidates for three positions in 1992-1993 at one community college. One of the first steps by Lawhorn and Ennis was the need to develop recruiting methods. They described the most effective method for recruiting to be word of mouth "Word of mouth is one of the least expensive and most efficient methods of recruiting" (p. 352). They went on to add the disclaimer that community colleges who use this mode of advertising may need to use some other methods to withstand a discrimination challenge.

Lawhorn and Ennis (1995) suggested that a measurable criteria for evaluating applicants be developed. They suggested that an evaluation sheet be developed to include such items as type of degree earned, educational background, teaching evaluations by students, membership in professional organizations, prior job-related experiences, and honors and awards. The authors did not describe exactly how the items were to be used, but presumably some kind of point system would be created for each category, generating a set of numbers and a cut off point. The above list was informative to a point, but gave no indication of how these items were to be weighed or

what evidence had been used to support the decisions.

Gibson-Benninger and Ratcliff (1996) included a more thorough review of the literature related to hiring community college faculty than did the previously cited three papers. They noted that community colleges faced with replacing large numbers of faculty were faced with a number of important issues including whether to recruit locally, nationally, or regionally and how to balance rewarding the service of loyal part-time faculty with the need to provide a more diverse staff by recruiting nationally. The authors divided their discussion equally between recruitment and retention. They argued that community colleges should consider going beyond the traditional areas of preparation to include a greater emphasis on the applicant's formal training in community college education. They noted that fewer than one-third of full-time and less than one-quarter of part-time faculty had a course on the two-year college. The authors asserted that "an expanded vision of what constitues preparation for a community college teaching position needs to precede the formation of the search committees and the writing of job descriptions for the recruitment of the next generation of faculty" (p. 153).

One solution to the problem of low numbers of minority apllicants has been to "grow your own" (Parsons, 1992). Gibson-Benninger and Ratcliff (1996) suggested that such an approach may be more easily effected by a community college than university. The authors noted that some community colleges have included specific recruitment for dual-career couples. While the community college may not have a position for both couples, a consortium arrangment with the nearby university might be beneficial to all concerned. The authors suggested that advertisment for open positions be as wide as possible, including the Chronicle of Higher Education, Black Issues in Higher Education, networking with peers, and seeking applicants from professional

organizations and through contacting area businesses and employers.

Gibson-Benninger and Ratcliff (1996) outlined a number of strategies for the retention of faculty including providing faculty with more opportunities for professional development. One suggestion that directely related to the desire for a more diverse faculty was to provide new faculty members with minority mentors. The authors argued that minority faculty and minority representatives from the surrounding community be included on search committees.

In one of the few dissertations that addressed the higher education faculty hiring process, Hill (1987) studied the perception and implementation of the term "affirmative action, equal opportunity employer" at two public universities. The study was based on two case sites, one institution located in the Adams v. Richardson desegregation litigation the other located in a state not included in the litigation. Adams involved a ruling that 20 states, mostly southern, had not yet taken adequate steps to desegrate state institutions of higher education following the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and almost 20 years after the Brown case. These states were ordered to develop plans for desegregation immediately. In other words, compliance to affirmative action was no longer voluntary, but was now court-ordered and court-monitored. The people interviewed by Hill included campus leaders and search committee chairs for a total of eight faculty and six administrative positions. This case study revealed that among those search committee members interviewed, most were not familiar with federal laws and regulations related to affirmative action. Apparently none of the chairs had received training on how to conduct an employment search.

Hill (1987) concluded that how affirmative action was defined by a search committee depended largely on how the department chair defined the terms. Those chairs that defined affirmative action as a neutral, nondiscriminatory process were characterized as "perfunctory and

appeared to represent a process of 'going through the motions' to document an attempt to meet affirmative action requirements" (p. 200). Hill also found that in those departments where numerical goals had been met, little or no effort was made to attract blacks or females. Thus affirmative action goals "may have a limiting effect on employment of protected groups once goals are met" (p. 201).

Hill (1987) found that a clear understanding of an institution's employment guidelines was related to a search committee's success in recruiting and interviewing members of protected groups. He reported that the past experiences of chairs seemed to "harden attitudes towards extending extra efforts in interviewing and recommending persons from protected groups" (p. 218), concluding that when searches did not specifically recruit blacks, but rather relied on traditional employment sources for whites, and when few or no blacks applied, the search committees "blamed low supply, not recruiting methods" (p. 228). Hill also found no evidence to support the contention that blacks were hired over more qualified whites because of their race. He debunked the idea that there are a small number of blacks in higher education due to a lingering climate of institutional racism as well.

Hill (1987) found that a number of items previously thought to be important actually had little or no impact on the process. The following is a summary of his findings:

1. The potential loss of federal funds due to not meeting guidelines.
2. Being under court order to rectify past discriminatory practices.
3. Search committee's awareness of previous court decisions.
4. The amount of funds available to conduct a search.
5. The specificity of the job description.

6. The search committee size.

Hill (1987) proposed a number of recommendations to improve the process of hiring a more diverse faculty. The most important recommendation by Hill was the need to develop "clear and comprehensive guidelines" (p. 254). None of the search committee chairs had ever received any training on how to conduct a search, interpret, or implement institutional affirmative action policies. According to Hill, each department should have a clearly defined numerical goal for any underutilized group within their department. He also suggested that recruitment be considered an ongoing process even when an actual position may not be available. Other recommendations included the need for documentation of recruitment efforts and the need for more faculty and staff training in the search process.

Higgins, Hawthorne, Cape and Bell (1994) profiled current two-year college faculty members identified as committed to the mission of their community colleges. The purpose of the research was to develop a composite portrait of a successful faculty member that could be used for recruitment and screening. A total of 289 faculty responded to the survey, which included items on characteristics of successful teachers. A total of 20 respondents then agreed to a follow-up interview. The most important of the 12 characteristics suggested in the survey form were communication skills, the ability to relate to students, and interpersonal skills. Ranked somewhat lower were a degree in the discipline and practical experience in a teaching area. The authors concluded that the most important quality or characteristic of successful community college instructors was an interest in working with diverse students. They did not report that diversity was itself an important criteria.

Jackson (1991) argued that representation by black faculty in higher education may be a

function of supply or it may be "a continuation of racial practices of exclusion and privileges that maintain advantages for those already entrenched in the system" (p. 136). Jackson studied professional growth by black faculty at mostly white institutions and at "historically black colleges and universities" (HBCUs). He argued that access and stability of employment are much greater for black faculty at HBCUs, but that such environments tend to isolate faculty "both physically and professionally" (p. 141). He also argued that the few black faculty on white campuses are overburdened by the large number of committees that require some black presence, commmunity service, teaching and advising, and sympathetic mentoring of black students. As a result, the workload leaves little time or energy for scholarly activities required for tenure and promotion.

Minority Role Models

One argument frequently made about the need for more minority faculty is the need for role models. As Reed (1986) argued in an article on faculty diversity "The presence of tenured, sensitive, and involved minority faculty and administrative staff in major academic and professional administrative positions is essential for minority student recruitment, retention, graduation, and graduate student enrollment" (p. 287). Research supports the relationship between role models and retention rates. Blackwell (1987) mailed surveys to deans of professional schools seeking information on 23 items thought to be related to changes in access by black students to graduate and professional schools. (No indication was given of how these sites were selected.) A total of 141 deans agreed to participate in the study. Blackwell concluded that the best predictor of success by black students in professional school was the number of black faculty in that school.

Teacher expectations may also play an important role in the success of students. In one

study on the relationship between race and preferential treatment by white teachers against black students, Rubovits and Maehr (1973) used systematic observations of 66 inexperienced white female undergraduates enrolled in a teacher training course who interacted with 264 seventh- and eighth-graders randomly selected from within different ability groups. Each teacher met with two white and two black students. Two students taught by each teacher were randomly given a label of "gifted" and the other two were labeled "nongifted." The authors found that "teachers gave preferential treatment to 'gifted' students" (p. 210). It was also found that "black students were treated less positively than whites, with blacks labeled 'gifted' apparently subjected to more discrimination than those labeled 'nongifted' (p. 210). It may not have been appropriate to call the undergraduates "teachers" due to the fact that none had yet had any teaching experience. Moreove, it may not be appropriate to generalize this 25-year old study to present-day undergraduates. As the authors noted, "after all, these teachers not only had little teaching experience, but as the questionnaire data would indicate, little experience of any kind with blacks" (p. 217).

No conclusive evidence exists in the literature that minority role models are causally linked to retention of minority students. Allen (1985) reviewed research findings that suggested that black students had not succeeded at predominantly white institutions relative to white students. He criticized the research for failure to make "within-race" comparisons instead of concentrating on "cross-race" comparisons (p. 135). Allen randomly selected black students attending six predominantly white universities. A total of 695 black students agreed to return the mailed questionnaire. The universities were chosen based on regional diversity, diversity of black student enrollment, and ease of access. Unlike previous cited research, Allen found that "better students,

academically speaking, were on better terms with faculty. In a mutual attraction cycle, faculty interest and attention were drawn to better performing students" (p. 145).

It is difficult to get a clear perspective on the issue of the effectiveness of role models in student success. Kuran (1995) described what he considered to be the highly charged political nature of criticism of affirmative action. He cited the case of a presentation by James Coleman (as cited in Kuran, 1995) at the 1976 convention of the American Sociological Association in which, according to Kuran, Coleman was vilified for finding, among other things, that students' verbal achievement depended on their teachers' score on verbal tests and on what appeared to be a disproportionate number of black teachers trained at segregated schools who had relatively low verbal skills. Coleman's findings, according to Kuran (1995), "raised the possibility that whether black or white, students taught by black teachers would, as a group, be at a disadvantage relative to their peers taught by white teachers" (p. 236).

Corporate Hiring Committees

In the absence of an extensive body of literature on how the faculty selection process used by community colleges differs from other higher education institutions, research done within the corporate personnel selection framework was examined. Three studies that shed some light on the corporate selection process might also apply to community colleges. Schneider (1987) provides an interesting theoretical base with his attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) cycle. Rynes and Gerhart (1990) looked at interviewer assessments of applicant "fit" from both a general and a firm-specific perspective. Adkins, Russell, and Werbel (1994) looked at the congruence between the work values (fairness, honesty, helping, and concern) of supervisors and subordinates as a way of looking at organizational "fit."

Schneider (1987) developed a theoretical base for personnel selection in general. He argued that "people are not randomly assigned to real organizations, but rather select themselves into and out of real organizations" (p. 440) and that "attraction to an organization, selection by it, and attrition from it yield particular kinds of persons in an organization" (p. 441). He suggested that organizations have an ASA cycle. He conjectured that as a result of the cycle, "organizations will have severely restricted the range of types of people in them" (p. 444). Consequently, the use of search committees to find the "right fit," as Bromert (1984, p. 3) puts it, carries an inherent danger because groups, left to their own devices, tend towards homogeneity rather than diversity.

Schneider's thesis of ASA leading to homogeneity was presented as a theoretical base and was not empirically tested, but the theory was tested by Bretz, Ash, and Dreher (1989). They noted,

> Organizations routinely engage in activity to identify and select individuals who are somewhat homogeneous from the applicant population. By relying on established recruiting sources (e.g., specific universities for college recruiting) and established screening and selection techniques (e.g., specific tests and minimum cut-off scores), organizations narrow the range of characteristics chosen applicants are likely to possess. In doing so, it appears that organizations often attempt to create, rather than combat, homogeneity. (p. 562)

Bretz, Ash, and Dreher (1989) reached their conclusions by examining 211 students approaching graduation, many of whom were engaged in campus recruiting. The students were given the Jackson Personality Research Form (PRF) which assessed subjects on their needs for achievement and affiliation as well as certain other characteristics such as autonomy and aggression. The students were asked to view videotaped interview segments from two different organizations and then asked to try to imagine themselves in the place of the videotaped applicant. After viewing the tapes and being given additional information about the organizations, the

students were told both organizations had extended job offers to them and they would have to choose between the two organizations. It was hypothesized that if the homogeneity thesis was true, members of a particular group (those choosing one organization) would be more alike on the PRF than the general population from which they came. The authors found a tendency towards the homogeneity thesis, but the evidence was not statistically significant.

Rynes and Gerhart (1990) noted that the desirability of "fit" between individuals and their environment "has become a basic tenet in many areas of psychology and human resource management" (p. 13). The authors reviewed the literature including Schneider's (1987) ASA theory, noting that various components of the concept of "fit" have not been precisely defined or empirically tested. Some of the factors associated with fit include hobbies, personality traits, attire, and physical characteristics. Rynes and Gerhart used data taken from rating sheets provided by 172 recruiters who interviewed 246 graduates of Master's of Business Administration at top Ivy League business schools during 1987-88 and 1988-89. The authors found that objective criteria such as training had little explanatory value, at least among highly qualified candidates, but that subjective factors, such as those mentioned above, became the principle criteria for determining who, from among a pool of similarly qualified applicants, actually received a job offer.

Adkins, Russel, and Weber (1994) studied the concept of fit including a replication of the research done by Rynes and Gerhart (1990). The authors identified 44 recruiters from 37 companies who had previously indicated they would be conducting on-campus interviews at a large state university. Of the 171 applicants interviewed, 30% were women and 15% were nonwhite. The authors found that recruiters make a distinction between general employability and

person-organization fit, supporting the findings of Rynes and Gerhart (1990). One recommendation of the study called for more research on what determines fit.

In summary, groups such as search committees tend to try to replicate themselves. It would seem that to "fit" (i.e., to be similar to) stands in opposition to the notion of diversity (i.e., to be different). The most obvious "differences" are based on gender and race. It does not necessarily follow though that gender and race difference preclude "fit." "Fit" may be understood in terms of values or other qualities less visible and more difficult to quantify. These other qualities may also be "code words" reflecting underlying racism and/or sexism. Research at the individual decision-making level examines relevant theories on racism and sexism, and how such theories affect the process of hiring a more diverse faculty.

Research on the Role of the Academic Market Place

This section of the review of literature will examine the related issues of minority pools of applicants and what is known regarding labor market effects on the hiring process. Most of the research on labor market effects on higher education has been largely focused on doctoral degree granting institutions. Little is known about how these same effect impact community colleges.

Minority Pools of Applicants

Money (1989) reported that higher education institutions attemping to hire minority faculty were having an increasingly difficult time. A few years later Magner (1996) reported that a record number of black Americans received a doctoral degree in 1995 based on preliminary data from the National Research Council. Magner noted that in 1982 the number of black Americans receiving a doctorate exceeded 1,000 for the first time in history. The number was reported to have grown unevenly since 1982 to a total of 482 for men and 805 for women. The total number

of doctorates for all races has also continued to grow in the last ten years, going from approximately 31,300 in 1985 to 41,600 in 1995. Considering only U.S. citizens (27,603), whites made up 86.3% of the recipients, blacks 4.7% and Asians 4.1%.

According to Blackwell (1987), one of the more important consequences of the civil rights movement was to increase the number of options open to black college graduates: "Before the 1950s, black college students focused almost exclusively on teaching and social services as career choices" (p. 16). After the late 1960s, "the career choices of black college students, as well as black high school students, were undoubtedly influenced by environmental cues over and beyond those found in the immediate family or school situation" (p. 17). Blackwell concluded that "the evidence shows that black students entered into more diverse professional fields in the late 1960s and 1970s than at any other time in their history" (p. 17).

Washington and Harvey (1989) acknowledged that the availability pool is a problem. They claimed this was proof that affirmative action goals had not been conscientiously followed. The authors also acknowledged that the majority of black faculty were concentrated in 114 predominately black institutions. They went on to observe that minority faculty appear to be "even more greatly under represented in two-year colleges" (p. 25).

Both Parsons (1992) and Andrews and Marzano (1990-91) suggested that a possible solution to the problem of a low number of minorities in the pool of applicants would be for community colleges to adopt a "grow your own" approach to minority recruitment. Such a proposal might include incentives like loan forgiveness or targeting of former minority graduates to encourage them to return to their community college alma mater upon graduation.

Labor Market Effects

How labor market factors affect the supply of applicants for faculty positions at community colleges is not well understood. What research has been done in this area has focused primarily on senior institutions of higher education, particularly doctoral-degree granting universities. The first major study in the area of the academic marketplace was done under that title by Caplow and McGee (1958). Burke (1988) set out to replicate the Caplow and McGee study to determine what changes had occurred in the academic personnel process since the 1950s. Caplow and McGee (1958) found that the overriding influence in the academic marketplace was the prestige system. Prestige was understood by university personnel to be an ordering of higher institutions such that some elite schools were at one end of the continuum with community colleges and proprietary schools located at the other less desirable end. The next most important influence was the perceived compatibility, the "fitting in" of the applicant. If prestige is perceived in this fashion, then community colleges wishing to hire highly talented faculty are clearly at a disadvantage relative to other higher education institutions, particularly if those highly talented faculty are also a member of a minority.

Burke (1988) argued that a significant change since Caplow and McGee (1958) has ocured in what she referred to as the market structure. She maintained that there is no longer an "academic profession" (p. 8), instead, there are clusters of experts. Burke found research-oriented faculty are more likely to change locations than teaching-oriented faculty. If it is true that faculty interested in teaching (as compared with research) are less likely to move, community colleges may have a more difficult time attracting them if a significant geographical move is needed.

Finnegan (1993) argued analysis of how to replicate successful careers in research-oriented institutions is so complete as to yield an "almost complete map" (p. 621). In other words, new Ph.D.s can follow a cookbook-like approach to finding success in academia. Finnegan studied forty full-time faculty at two New England comprehensive universities. One of the issues that she addressed was the question of "queing" (p. 651). Queing refers to the concept that hierarchical competition in the academic marketplace pushes the highest quality applicants to the front of the line where they are hired by the highest quality institutions, leaving the less meritorious applicants with less meritorious institutions. The author concluded that the queing theory was not supported by the data from her case study. She argued that while queing may have existed, it probably operated within sectors of the academic marketplace rather than across types of institutions. In other words, the queing effect might more easily be seen between research institutions judged to be at the top of some list as compared with other research institutions not rated as highly rather than between a research institution and a community college. Some applicants in the study appeared to avoid a "publish or perish" (p. 651) career path rather than just settling for such positions. The queing theory appears to be a variation on the prestige model reported by Capolw and McGee (1958) and Burke (1988). If the queing theory is not valid, then community colleges might have an easier time attracting quality faculty.

Rosenfeld and Jones (1987) studied 622 people equally divided between men and women who had Ph.D.s and were listed in the Directory of the American Psychological Association to determine the effects of geographic mobility. They concluded that women were less geographically mobile than men. The authors suggested that geographic mobility might be coordinated with life cycle and careers. They found that men who received their doctorates at

later stages in life were less likely to move to their first jobs, thus mirroring the pattern observed in women. The authors looked only at gender differences without considering other intervening variables such as ethnicity, looked only at psychologists and not at other fields, and did not look at the effect that other family members might have on geographic mobility. As community colleges increasingly hire women faculty, geographic mobility may have important implications regarding where recruitment would be most effective.

Mickelson and Oliver (1991) researched factors used to determine the quality of an applicant. Their premise was that quality itself was difficult to measure directly. Therefore, various proxies or indicators of quality supposedly were more easily measured, including such variables as a graduate department's reputation were used. The authors claimed that such proxies were rarely validated, but were simply assumed to be true. They studied 733 black graduate and professional students to determine if there were differences in quality among the students in variously ranked institutions. Quality was defined to include such items as grades, papers published, and presentations at conferences. Demographic data were also collected. Mickelson and Oliver found that family obligations, community ties, hostile social climates, and inadequate support systems may lead minority students to opt for less prestigious institutions, resulting in the incorrect perception of them as being of less quality than students who graduate from more prestigious institutions. What has not been adequately researched is how these various factors impact the decision to apply at community colleges. In some parts of the U.S. community colleges are not common; until recently the state of Louisiana had only one community college. It might be a difficult decision for a minority person to consider relocating to a small, rural midwestern community where they may be one of the very few minority professionals in the area.

A study that shed light on possible labor market factors grew out of work done to try to explain why some federal government agencies were more effective than others when it came to integrating personnel. Kellough and Elliot (1992) looked at the level of integration among 30 federal governmental organizations in the years 1982, 1984, 1986, and 1988. The Federal Government employed over two million civilian employers during that period. The authors found that several factors helped to explain variations in agency integration. The geographic location was considered important for blacks and Hispanics. Unionization was a critical influence for all groups. Agency mission (an institutional focus on social justice or equity) was also found to be important. If the authors' conclusions are correct and similar choices are experienced by minority faculty, it may be more difficult for some community colleges to achieve a high level of integration.

Most existing research on academic labor market factors in hiring college faculty has focused on four-year and research-oriented institutions of higher education rather than community colleges. To fully understand if, how, and why some search processes produce more minority and women applicants than others, it may be necessary to determine the role that race and gender play in the geographic mobility of graduates or at least develop indicators to help monitor the labor market effects. Whereas, it might be possible to explain the low numbers of minority faculty in community colleges based solely on external labor market forces, that does not exclude other factors that further restrict the hiring of minority and female faculty. As is shown in the next section, it is possible that faculty search committees in organizations operate in such a way as to replicate existing inequities. It is also possible, and perhaps even likely, that racism and sexism continue to operate at the individual level even among well-intentioned white faculty.

Research Related to Methodology

As shall be explained in detail in Chapter Three, the primary or umbrella methodology for this research is the qualitative methodology known as the exploratory case study. In order to achieve a more complete picture of how participants conceptualize the use of present and future strategies for hiring a more diverse faculty, the traditional case study methodology was extended through the use of concept mapping. Although quantitative in appearance, the author of the software, W. M. K. Trochim, acknowledged the essentially qualitative nature of concept mapping in an article entitled "Concept Mapping:Soft Science or Hard Art?" (Trochim, 1989a). The use of quantitative methods within a qualitative framework is called a "mixed-methodology design" (Creswell, 1994, p. 179).

Concept mapping may be less familiar to most researchers than traditional case study methodology. What follows is a brief review of literature as it has been used in previous research. Concept mapping was described by Trochim (1989a, 1989b, 1996b) as a type of "structured conceptualization" (p. 1) used to develop a framework to guide either planning or evaluation. A concept map is the pictorial representation of ideas that have been previously generated and "the interrelationships between them articulated. Multivariate statistical techniques – multidimensional scaling and cluster analysis are then applied" (p. 1). The result is a two-dimensional representation of the relationship between the ideas, or a concept map.

For Trochim (1989a, 1989b, 1996b) concept mapping is generally a six-step process: (a) preparation (selection of participants and the development of a specific focus statement); (b) generation of ideas or statements; (c) structuring the ideas (sorting and rating); (d) preparation of the maps (using multidimensional scaling and cluster analysis); (e) interpretation of the maps; and,

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(f) utilization of the maps. The methodology for this research utilized participants and data generated from the personal interviews conducted and college documents reviewed with respect to the first phase of the case study.

The methodology of concept mapping has been used in numerous studies. Linton (1989) reported on how concept mapping was used to develop a framework for understanding the concept of feminism. Linton provided a list of 21 advantages of the concept mapping methodology that ranged from the ability to have many, diverse participants to what Linton referred to as a type of results that emphasized "connections rather than 'significant' differences" (p. 28). Linton claimed the participants had a greater sense of control of the meaning and of the decision-making process.

Mannes (1989) described research that utilized concept mapping for the planning of a specific social technology – family-based in-home services. Mannes concluded that the use of concept mapping for planning "proved to be extremely insightful" (p. 73). Galvin (1989) reported on the use of concept mapping for the planning and evaluation of a big brother/big sister program. Galvin concluded that concept mapping "provided an invaluable tool for conceptualizing the program, designing a questionnaire, strengthening the validity of the results, and enabling predictions of the results" (p. 57).

Other researchers (Grayson, 1992a, 1992b; and Bragg 1997) have utilized concept mapping for other purposes. Grayson (1992a) used concept mapping to identify a theoretical framework to develop alternative evaluation of a statewide initiative on truants. Grayson used a total of twenty-seven participants in various stages of the mapping process. Grayson concluded that concept mapping was useful in identifying the basic components of a program as well as

providing the basis for planning an evaluation. He observed it offered the additional advantages of involving a diverse group of participants with a wide range of experience.

Grayson (1992b) described a three-phase model based on Trochim (1989) to "describe basic tenets and key components (i.e., theoretical underpinnings -- what people say and/or what people do) of vocational education from the perspective of Black Hawk Community College faculty, administrators, students, and local business/labor/community constituents" (p. 76). Grayson used brainstorming techniques to generate 98 statements to describe what vocational education ought to be. Grayson concluded concept mapping can "facilitate policy makers and program planners and managers in making informed decisions in regard to setting policy and to planning, implementing, and evaluating vocational education" (p. 91).

Bragg (1997) studied perceptions of stakeholders (i.e., educators, students, and employers) of Tech Prep student outcomes at 20 of 30 sites in the National Center for Research in Vocational Education (NCRVE) Urban Schools Network. A total of 61 participants rated and sorted a total of 98 statements of possible Tech Prep student outcomes. Bragg concluded that knowledge of how "groups conceptualize student outcomes has important implications for understanding the fundamental objectives of Tech Prep, for planning and implementing programs, and for assessing outcomes for the future" (p. 77). Bragg went on to note, "by uncovering various conceptualizations of Tech Prep, it may be possible to identify conflicting perspectives held by disparate stakeholder groups" (p. 77).

Summary

This review of literature addressed several aspects of the research questions. With regard to the historical development of the faculty search process, the legislative, executive, and judicial

history of affirmative action can be summarized as an attempt to level the playing field and to insist that institutions of higher education address past injustices. Since the late 1970s and early 1980s, mixed messages were sent by various branches of the government that perhaps affirmative action had gone too far. Recent decisions by the Supreme Court and legislative actions marked a retreat from the attempt to redress past inequities. The literature (see for example, Schneider, 1987; and Bretz , Ash, & Dreher, 1989) suggested that homogeneous groups tended to replicate themselves. Without the intervention of affirmative action, it is possible that homogeneous groups such as a predominantly white community college faculty will continue to replicate itself.

The literature (see for example, Atcherson & Conyers, 1989; Rynes & Rosen, 1995; and, Scollay et al., 1989) suggests that leadership in a community college is related to the implementation of diversity practices. How faculty experience leadership roles is unclear. Stassen (1992, 1995) suggested that if some faculty see hiring new faculty as their own prerogative, then administrative calls for hiring more minority faculty might be perceived as a threat and, therefore, strongly resisted.

With regard to faculty selection criteria and associated processes, Lawhorn and Ennis (1995) suggested that the faculty serving on search committees probably make hiring decisions based on perceptions of applicant's experience and preparation. They did not suggest how experience and preparation might be weighed in the decision. More importantly, they did not present evidence of what search committees used to indicate experience and preparation.

Theories on academic organizations suggest that institutions of higher education, including community colleges, can perhaps best be understood by researchers and others through the use of multiple perspectives or frames (Sergiavonni, 1989; Bensimons,1992; and Bolman & Deal, 1991).

Managers that utilize multiple frames will likely be more effective in dealing with the multiple realities of complex organizations than would managers who use only a single frame (Bolman & Deal , 1991; and Bensimons, 1992).

Research on the academic marketplace has focused largely on universities and doctoral-degree granting institutions (Caplow & McGee, 1958; Burke, 1988; Rosenfeld & Jones, 1987; and Finnegan, 1993). Research does suggest that geographic location, unionization, and agency mission may have some impact on integration (Kellough & Elliot, 1992).

Chapter Three will describe the methodology used in this research in more depth. The traditional exploratory case study methodology will be extended through the use of concept mapping. Concept mapping has been shown to be an effective tool for demonstrating how various participants conceptualize ideas (Trochim & Linton, 1986; Trochim, 1989a, 1989b, 1993, 1996b; Grayson, 1992a, 1992b; and Bragg, 1997).

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

The grand research question addressed by this study was, "How can a community college hire a more diverse full-time faculty?" The study looked in-depth at one community college thought to represent an institution unusually committed to the concept of diversity. The grand research question was divided into two parts and two subsidiary questions were developed -- one for each part. They were:

1. What are the policies and procedures for the hiring of full-time faculty?
2. What strategies are being considered for hiring a more diverse full-time faculty in the future?

The study had two distinctive phases, each with differing roles for the researcher, methods of data collection, and data analysis. Initially the research was focused on addressing the first subsidiary research question in three parts:

1. What was the current hiring process for full-time faculty as stated in the college documents at the time the study was conducted in 1996?
2. How and why had that policy changed since the college opened in 1966?
3. How did college personnel perceive the actual implementation of current hiring policies and procedures?

Data from interviews and documents provided qualitative information useful in understanding the three research sub-questions. These sub-questions were also designed, in part, to yield a list of strategies perceived as useful for future hiring of a more diverse faculty. Based on the findings of these three subsidiary questions, a methodology was employed that was designed to be answer the

second subsidiary research question. The methodology used was called concept mapping (Trochim & Linton, 1986; Trochim, 1989a, 1989b, 1996b). In order to protect the confidentiality of the participants the pseudonym of Green Acres Community College was chosen.

Research Design

Based on the review of literature an exploratory case study (Marshall & Rossman, 1995) was chosen as an appropriate methodology to better understand how one community college, considered to be in the forefront, developed and implemented policies and procedures for hiring a more diverse full-time faculty. Multiple data sources (including persons selected as representatives from various administrative groups such as the president, vice-president, and department chairs, along with faculty and staff) and data types (including in-depth interviews and written documents such as a number of years of the College Catalog, policy and procedure manuals since the college was formed, and other college reports along with archived material from previous administrations such as newspaper accounts and personal letters) were utilized. In addition to determining what current policies and procedures were in place, an attempt was made to determine how the various participants in the study experienced those policies. The multiple data sources and types were analyzed to determine themes and patterns and to explore how the themes were interrelated.

The case study was the umbrella methodology, but the traditional case study design was extended by incorporating methodology that would yield insights on strategies contemplated or influenced by present realities and visions of the future -- concept mapping (Trochim, 1989a, 1989b, 1996b). As Trochim (1989b) noted in his article "Concept mapping: Soft science or hard art?", "concept mapping may result in both a representation of reality and an interesting

suggestive device" (p. 87). The software, The Concept System (Trochim, 1996a), utilized sophisticated mathematical and statistical techniques in its analyses, but ultimately its purpose in this study was to suggest the relationships between various strategies that are or might be used in the future to hire a more diverse full-time faculty. Because some of the techniques used in the study incorporated quantitative methods, this study can best be described as a mixed-methodology design (Creswell, 1994).

Selection Procedures

The selection procedures used in this study are described in two parts. The first part explains the criteria used in the site selection along with a description of the site selected. The second part describes the criteria for participant selection and provides a brief overview of the participants selected for the different stages of this research.

Site Selection

Marshall and Rossman (1995) suggested that a criterion for site selection should be maximum access to a wide range of perspectives. Because of past associations with Green Acres College and friendships that developed out of those associations. I was given unusual access to data by senior administrators and others in positions of knowledge about the hiring process at the college.

In his discussion of the design of case studies, Yin (1984) argued that one rationale for using a case study methodology was when the case was extreme or unique. In some respects, such as funding, tuition, and size, Green Acres College was quite typical of many other community colleges in its state. In other relevant respects, such as its commitment to diversity and multiculturalism, it was not typical. In recent years the college had hosted a statewide

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conference on diversity; formed an office of Women's Affairs; offered diversity training workshops for its entire staff; implemented training guidelines and policies for search committees, providing those committees with significant input into the hiring process; created a network of faculty and staff trained to serve as affirmative action representatives on search committees; established a "grow your own" approach for developing larger minority applicant pools; and won several awards on the state and national level for diversity and multicultural activities. It also has been recognized nationally for its planning activities. Its president had voiced strong support for diversity issues and served as a chair for a statewide committee for community colleges on access and opportunity. Such factors contribute to this college being considered a unique case for this study.

Participant Selection

Sample size for interviewing was guided by Douglas (1985) who argued that there are rules of thumb to guide decisions on sampling. The researcher should keep finding people until the researcher stops "hitting pay dirt" (p. 50) and then, once pay dirt disappears, the researcher should make an active effort for negative instances. The selection of participants for both interviewing and concept mapping was guided by a technique called "purposive sampling" where the key criteria for selection were special knowledge of the hiring process through (a) job classification (i.e., president, vice-president, and department chairs); (b) extra training (i.e., diversity training or affirmative action training), or (c) experience in some special aspect of the hiring process (service on search committees). Such a sample does not necessarily reflect the views of the entire population being studied, but rather is considered an elite group. Marshall and Rossman (1995) described a special type of interviewing they called "elite interviewing" (p. 83).

Elite interviewing was said to involve interviewing the influential, the prominent, and the well-informed. Elite interviewing was said to provide a better overall view of an organization as well as providing information on the "organization's policies, past histories, and future plans" (p. 83).

Twenty participants were selected and agreed to participate in in-depth interviews. Their selection was based on each individual being in a position of having observed various aspects of the current faculty selection process. Many of those chosen had also had experience with faculty selection procedures developed under previous administrations. No attempt was made to find a sample that statistically represented the entire faculty and staff. A mixture of faculty and administrative staff with various levels of responsibility were chosen to optimize the opportunity to examine possible organizational structural issues.

Using criteria identified above an attempt was made to optimize stakeholder perspectives in both the interviewing (sample) and concept mapping. Participants were chosen because of their special knowledge or position such as past president of the faculty senate or current president-elect, membership in off-campus minority recruiting teams, and other leadership roles in such areas as womens' studies, teaching excellence, and affirmative action. In one case a participant in the "grow your own" initiative was chosen even though she had not served on a search committee. To ensure that various points of view were included, three people identified as having been critical of the current faculty selection process were included. Demographic data were collected on persons who participated in the concept mapping research only.

The sample size for the concept mapping phase of the study was guided by the research of Trochim (1993) who studied factors related to reliability in his report on 38 studies that had a mean number of 14.6 participants who sorted the statements and a mean number of 13.9

participants who rated the data. Trochim determined that there was a positive correlation between the number of participants and overall reliability of the results. A total of 26 faculty and staff chosen using the criteria identified above agreed to participate in the concept mapping research. While this number is small by standards for traditional statistical studies, the 25 participants involved here represent an approximate 70% increase over the mean number used by Trochim for sorting and an 80% increase over the mean number reported by Trochim for rating. The apparent discrepancy in the numbers used in this study (25 and 26) is because one person participated in only the sorting but not the rating while another participated in only the rating and not the sorting, giving a total of 25 usable reposnses for both sorting and rating.

Using the principle described by Douglas (1985), the focus of subsequent interviews shifted to attempting to find negative instances after five administrators and five full-time faculty were interviewed and no new "pay dirt" seemed to emerge. A total of eight administrators (including five department chairs), eleven full-time faculty, and additional staff were interviewed.

A complete matrix of demographic data collected for the mapping including job title, department-chair status, gender, race, search committee experience status, diversity training status, and affirmative action training status is presented in Appendix A. Complete descriptive data will be provided in later chapters when various sub-groups are identified in the concept mapping process, but a brief description of the gender and racial composition for those involved in the concept mapping process is described below.

An equal number of females and males was selected, creating a sample of 26. Five of the administrators were female and five male. Six of the full-time faculty were female and eight male. Two additional professional non-teaching staff (refered to by the college as supportive

professionals) were female. Three department chairs were female and five male. Female department chairs are underrepresented in the mapping as compared with the overall department chair numbers. One female department chair was not included because her department had not recently hired any new faculty and, unlike other departments on campus, all hiring decisions were handled by a three- person committee from within the department. Another female department chair was hired after the interviews were completed and was almost completely new to campus. The department chair whom she replaced was male and participated in both the interviews and the concept mapping. Nine of the females were white, three black, and one Asian. All of the males were white except for one black. Five of the twelve who reported serving on more than six searches were female. Nine of the seventeen who reported having completed diversity training were female. Three of the eight who had completed affirmative action training were female.

Only a very small total number of nonwhites hold administrative and full-time faculty positions (three Asians -- one new to the college -- eight black females, three black males -- one new). Five of these (one Asian female, three black females, and one black male) agreed to participate in the mapping. Of these five, two were administrators (both females --one black and one Asian) and the others were full-time faculty (two females and one male). Two nonwhites (both female -- one black and one Asian) reported having served on six or more search committees. Four of the nonwhites reported having completed diversity training, the other, a black female, was new. Three of the nonwhites reported that they had completed affirmative action training. One who did not was the current president who had conducted the training and another (a black female) who was new.

Data Collection Procedures

Since data collection procedures differ between the case study and concept mapping, each is described separately.

Case Study

Marshall and Rossman (1995) described four primary methods of data collection for case study research: participation, observation, in-depth interviewing, and document review. Participation in or observation of the faculty hiring process would have provided useful information in formulating additional questions on the process before the in-depth interviews were begun. However, during the summer and fall semester of 1996 the only full-time faculty searches being conducted were for positions reopened when the previous searches had failed to hire applicants. Because the reopened searches were so far along in the process, it was decided that participation or observation would be too intrusive.

Interviews. Much of the data collected came from personal interviews. A number of authors describe appropriate interviewing techniques (Douglas, 1985; Merriam, 1988; and Holstein & Gubrium; 1995). Despite the large number of books showing "how to" interview and what not to do, Douglas (1985) argued that "the overwhelming majority of those who have thought seriously about these matters have concluded that interviewing is overwhelmingly based on common-sense activities" (p. 11). He indicated that interviewing was based on "cooperative mutual discourse and a creative search for mutual understanding" (p. 25). He also suggested that small talk and chit chat were vital first steps to developing the trust and confidence needed in successful interviewing. The tone of the interviews were guided by the discussions by Douglas.

This study employed an interview process similar to that described by Merriam (1988).

Merriam described the process of conducting and recording personal interviews using a method called semi-structured interviews. Semi-structured interviews were "guided by a list of questions or issues to be explored, but neither the exact wording nor the order of the questions is determined ahead of time" (p. 74). Merriam described a method for collecting data using transcriptions of tape recordings made during the interviews, along with field notes made at the time of the interview. In a similar vein, Holstein and Gubrium (1995) suggested that active interviewing was more than just asking predefined questions. The interviewer must also keep the conversation flowing and provide guidance to keep the research focused. An initial list of semi-structured questions can be found in Appendix B.

Douglas (1985), Holstein and Gubrium (1995), and Marshall and Rossman (1995) recommended the use of audio recordings for data collection. Bogdan and Biklen (1992) also suggested that field notes be taken to provide additional data. The formal personal interviews for this research were recorded using portable tape recorders. In three cases recording failed and field notes were used to recreate critical points. The tape recordings were transcribed into text. In a number of cases, participants had additional thoughts that they shared in casual, informal settings. Informal notes were written as soon as possible after the discussions in order to not interrupt the free flow of dialogue. A separate reader, a professional editor familiar with the college but no longer associated with it, was asked to review the transcripts to determine various themes and important concepts.

Documents. Lincoln and Guba (1985) asserted that documents and records are "singularly useful sources of information" (p. 276) because they are available, stable, rich sources of information, and often legally unassailable. They distinguish between records and documents.

Records are written statements that attest to an action that had actually taken place. Documents are other written materials besides records, such as letters, memos, and photographs. Data were collected from historical documents found in the college's archive such as newspaper accounts and photographs from protests at the college in its early days. Presidential notes on early faculty hires and application forms used by the college at different times were included. Official college reports including all the college's policy and procedure manuals since the college opened in 1964, internal studies, and material prepared for external accrediting agencies were analyzed for information related to the faculty hiring processes at the college.

Concept Mapping

Grayson (1992b) reported that concept mapping is "a general purpose statistical software package which has routines for multidimensional scaling and cluster analysis and a graphics program to plot the final maps [that] can be used to analyze and compute map" (p. 74). He recommended a computer program written by Trochim (1989c), The Concept System. The latest version of the software (version 1.7) was used for the research. Trochim (1989a, 1989b, 1996b) and Grayson (1992a, 1992b) describe concept mapping as a six-step process. Step one of the data collection in concept mapping includes determination of participants and development of a focus statement. The criteria and number of participants is discussed later in this chapter. The focus statement was identified by the researcher and sent to each participant via interoffice e-mail to overcome the practical problem of scheduling participants such as the college president, vice-president, and a number of the department chairs. After participant input the focus statement was revised to read, "What are the strategies that are or could be used to hire a more diverse full-time faculty at the college?"

The second step in the process was the creation of a number of statements or ideas that addressed the focus statement (Trochim & Linton, 1986; Trochim, 1989b; Grayson, 1992a; and Trochim, 1996b). Trochim (1989b) suggested group "brainstorming" as a method for generating ideas, but allowed for the possibility of other approaches. During the interview stage, two participants reported the existence of an internal 1994 college report on plans to increase the minority pool of applicants. A search of the archives uncovered the report. It included a number of initiatives that were being proposed for implementation college-wide over the next three years. A total of 28 statements covering all major points in the report were selected and where appropriate, edited. This list of statements was sent to all participants via interoffice e-mail with the request that the statements be reviewed for omissions, duplications, and clarity. Participants were requested to edit the list and send their responses to the researcher within ten days. The researcher combined responses for a total of 48 statements. The list of 48 was then sent again to all participants by way of interoffice e-mail for review of the statements for omissions, duplications, and clarity. Again, they were asked to respond within ten days.

The third step has been called the "structure ideas step" (Trochim, 1996b, p.4). A packet was distributed to the participants that contained the needed instructions, the 48 statements (randomized and placed on separate cards), a sheet for recording the sorted data, and a sheet for recording the ratings (see Appendix D for details). Each participant was instructed to first sort the statements and then to record the results. A list of guidelines were provide to help the participants complete the sorting step. Each participant was given 48 cards, containing one statement and an associated statement number. The participants were asked to sort the statements into stacks in a way that made sense to them. It was suggested that the statements be

grouped for similarity in meaning rather than importance. The participants were advised that there was no right or wrong way to group the statements; in fact, they would probably be able to group the statements in several ways that seemed to make sense. They were instructed to use the arrangement that felt best. No statement could be put into two different stacks and each statement should be put in a stack. They were told that people differ on the number of stacks and that 10 to 20 usually work out well. It was also possible to put a single statement in a stack if it was determined that it was unrelated to any other statements.

The second part of the sorting process involved recording the results. A separate sheet for recording the results was provided consisting of a table that contained two columns and 20 rows. An example of how to record the data was provided. The participants were advised to begin with any stack and that order was not important. They were asked to quickly review that stack and to record in the first column a short phrase or title that described the contents of that stack. In the second column of that row they were asked to record all of the statement ID numbers associated with that stack, separating each number by a comma. They were advised that after completing the first stack they should move on to the next stack and repeat the process until all of the stacks had been recorded. They were also told that if the 20 rows provided were not sufficient, additional rows could be provided on a separate sheet of paper. No participant needed the second sheet. The largest number of stacks was fifteen and the smallest was five.

The participants were instructed to rate each of the 48 statements on a five point Likert-type scale of importance:

1 = Not Important,

2 = Somewhat Important,

3 = Important,

4 = Very Important,

5 = Extremely Important.

The participants were instructed to circle or cross out a number corresponding to a value between 1 and 5 for each statement in terms of that statement's relative importance as compared with the other 47 statements. The following caution was added, "It is essential that you discriminate among statements so that you use the entire rating scale. Use all five values at least several times."

One week after the packet was mailed, a follow-up letter was sent to all participants. After an additional week, another follow-up letter was sent to any who had not yet responded. After a third week, a phone call was made to any who had not yet returned a response. Attempts were made to also make a personal contact with each nonrespondent.

Data Analysis Procedures

The different data analysis techniques used for the case study and concept mapping are described separately.

Case Study

Lincoln and Guba (1985) described the first step in case study data analysis as developing "units" of information for organizing data (p. 344). The review of related literature suggested four initial units: external forces such as affirmative action practices, labor market effects, and minority pools; internal forces such as leadership, organizational structure, and official hiring policies and procedures; individual responses such as those described by Stassen (1992, 1995) that serve to modify or amplify behaviors; and the search committee which may reflect the combined interactions of the other three units. As Merriam (1988) pointed out, "Data collection

and analysis are simultaneous activities in qualitative research" (p. 119). Following Merriam's suggestion, data were organized both topically and, where appropriate, chronologically. Based on documents and records as well as a review of related literature, a series of initial semi-structured questions was developed (see Appendix B). Data were then collected from personal interviews. Transcripts of those interviews became an additional source of data.

The second step described by Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Merriam (1988) involves developing categories or themes, particularly with the transcribed data. Following the advice of these authors, data were repeatedly reviewed until an "emergence of regularities" appeared (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 350). In addition, a series of statements derived from documents and reports, along with interview data collection and data analysis, were identified for later use in concept mapping. The exact wording of the statements is described later in Chapter Five.

The third step of data analysis was the development of a conceptual overview or theorizing (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; and Merriam, 1988). Data from the interviews, document review, and concept mapping were used to develop a series of hypotheses to further explore the relationships between the emergent constructs.

Concept Mapping

Of the six steps in the concept mapping process described by Trochim (1996b), the last three involve data analysis and interpretation procedures. The sorting and rating data previously collected were entered into the software, The Concept System, (Trochim, 1996a). According to Grayson (1992b) the software

> averages the rating data and analyzes the similarity sort data. Analysis of data is performed by aggregating similarity sort data (i.e., higher values in cells indicate a higher level of agreement among participants) into a nonmetric binomial matrix, then maps are

> computed through multivariate analysis (multidimensional scaling [MDS] and cluster analysis) on the nonmetric binomial matrix. (p. 74)

One of the maps produced by the software is a point map. Kuskal and Wish (1978) describe the point map by means of an analogy. They argued that it was relatively easy to think about finding the distance between various cities on a map given the scale and a good ruler. The challenge was to create a map given only the distances between the cities. In place of cities, it is possible to locate points in two-dimensional space that represented the manner in which various ideas or concepts had been grouped together. Multidimensional scaling (MDS) provided the mathematical means by which such maps are generated.

Davison (1983) suggested that the data in multidimensional scaling are measures of proximity, or "an index over pairs of objects that quantifies the degree to which the two objects are alike" (p. 1). In other words, proximity on a two-dimensional map represented similarity between two items. The closer two items were together, the more they were sorted into the same piles or stacks by the participants.

Once the points have been located in two-dimensional space, hierarchical cluster analysis is used to group points (statements) on the map. Trochim (1989c) reported that Ward's algorithm was used for deciding the number of clusters to be generated as a starting point of analysis of the point map. Ward's algorithm was used at each step in the analysis to test for a minimum increase in the error of the sum of squares. Given a predetermined number of clusters, cluster analysis determined the points most likely to fall within that predetermined number of clusters. The default number of clusters was approximately the square root of the number of statements. For this study with forty-eight statements, the default number was seven.

All participants were directed to name each of the piles or groups of statements when they did the initial sort. These prospective names for clusters were entered into the software along with the sorted data. The software analyzed the prospective cluster names based on the number of clusters and suggested a "best" name for each cluster. The documentation provided in the manuals for the software did not specifically describe the methods by which the software made this determination. However, the software does provide for the possibility that the researcher could choose different names from the list of possible names as suggested by the participants. For the researcher to choose to rename a cluster based on the list of possibilities leaves the researcher open to the charge of subjective judgements; however, the researcher can be guided in this choice by statistical data provided by the computer known as bridging factors -- a numerical measure of the extent to which a particular statement was judged to belong to a particular cluster. A low bridging factor for a cluster of statements can be used to suggest that the statements were frequently placed together in a stack by the participants. Using the bridging factors and guided by an intuitive feel for the data, the researcher modified two default cluster names. During the later map interpretation session, there was a consensus among those present that the cluster names were appropriate.

Validity, Reliability, and Ethical Issues

Lincoln and Guba (1985) raised the specter of the trustworthiness of qualitative research. They suggested that qualitative research addresses the issues of validity and reliability. Concept mapping has a quantitative "feel" to it because of the generation of numbers based on statistical analysis, but it is still essentially qualitative in nature. Trochim (1989a) captured the dilemma in the title of an article, "Concept Mapping: Soft Science or Hard Art." Methods for demonstrating

validity and reliability do vary between the case study and concept mapping, so each is described separately below. In the last part of this section, ethical issues such as confidentiality are also discussed.

Case Study

Four of the basic strategies described by Merriam (1991) were used for ensuring internal validity or what Lincoln and Guba (1985) called "truth value" (p. 294): triangulation, member checking, peer examination, and participatory modes of research. One strategy, long-term observations, was beyond the time frame of this study and therefore was not used as a method of validation. Triangulation involved the use of multiple data sources including linking interview data with data from reports and other documents retrieved from the college archives. Member checking involved taking data and interpretations back to participants and attempting to determine if the findings seemed reasonable. Two department chairs (one male and one female) and one faculty member were repeatedly interviewed for the purpose of addressing the validity of the data. Peer examination was provided by an unpaid professional editor who was familiar with the college, but no longer employed there. This editor reviewed the transcripts and developed a summary page that outlined perceived themes. "Participatory modes of research" was defined by Merriam (1991) as involving participants in all phases of the research. Both the case study and the concept mapping phases drew on this form of validation extensively.

The term "reliability" is somewhat more problematic in qualitative research than in quantitative (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; and Merriam, 1991). Reliability, as defined by Merriam, "refers to the extent to which one's findings can be replicated" (p. 170). Merriam suggested that the same tests that yield validity in a qualitative study help to provide for its reliability. In other

words, the triangulation, member checking, peer examination, and participatory modes of research described above all contribute to "reliability" of the research.

Steps were taken to ensure that all data were dealt with in an ethical manner. The research proposal was reviewed and approved by the College of Education Office on Human Subject Research at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (UIUC). All research was done under the guidelines for Human Subject Research published by UIUC. All participants were requested to sign a release form (see Appendix C) and were informed that they could decide at any point in the research to be no longer involved. The responses to the demographic data and the sorting and rating of statements were coded to help provide confidentiality (see cover letter to packet in Appendix D). The name of the college was changed along with any references to the college or its surrounding area. The names of participants were coded to ensure confidentiality of responses for those individuals.

Concept Mapping

Several researchers have addressed issues of validity using concept mapping (Davis, 1989; Marquart, 1989; and Dumont, 1989). Davis (1989) and Marquart (1989) studied the correspondence between theory and data collection as a way to begin to achieve understanding. Both concluded that the concept mapping approach was useful in developing this understanding. More applicable to this study was the research done by Dumont (1989). Dumont assessed the agreement between computer-drawn and hand-drawn maps. The data generally supported agreement between the computer-drawn and the hand-drawn maps. Dumont warned that all maps, computer-drawn or hand-drawn, probably reflect the thinking of an individual or a group "at a particular point in time" (p. 85). One indicator of the validity of concept mapping was the

same as that applied to other forms of qualitative research namely participatory mode of investigation (Merriam, 1991). Participants in this research were involved in creating the statements, sorting and rating the statements, and interpreting the maps.

Trochim (1993) presented a paper at the annual Conference of the American Evaluation Association that addressed the reliability of concept mapping. Trochim looked at thirty-eight mapping projects and tested six different reliability estimates, all of which used the Spearman-Brown Prophecy formula. Trochim noted two other methods for estimating reliability, test-retest and Cronbach's alpha. He rejected the former because of the extensive amount of time it would have taken for the participants of all 38 studies to redo all of the maps. He rejected the latter because "there is no known way to estimate alpha for matrix data used in concept mapping" (p. 9).

Trochim (1993) reported that for his metaanalysis of concept mapping in thirty-eight projects the mean number of statements was 84 and the mean number of sorters and raters was fourteen. He reported that the mean stress value was 0.30 on a scale of 0.00 to 1.00. He also reported a standard deviation of 0.04 for the stress value. Trochim described stress value as "a statistic routinely reported for multidimensional scaling that reflects goodness of fit. A lower stress value implies a better fit" (p.13). Trochim went on to argue that the number of statements was largely uncorrelated with reliability while the number of sorters was positively correlated with reliability. The data reported in this research had about half the mean number of statements reported by Trochim (48 and 84) but had nearly twice the number of sorters and raters (25 and 14). This research generated a stress value of 0.18 indicating this study provided a better than average "goodness of fit."

Ethical issues in the concept mapping portion of the research were addressed by coding the individual response sheets with a random number before they were distributed. In the cover letter (see cover letter for packet of data in Appendix D) the participants were informed that the code was being used to ensure that data did not get separated and to assist in follow-up. Participants were assured that all responses would be kept in confidence.

Summary

This chapter laid out the methodology for data collection and analysis used in this case study of the full-time faculty selection process in one somewhat unique community college. The broad research question that was addressed by the study was, "How can a community college hire a more diverse full-time faculty?" A number of relevant people were invited to be interviewed. The interviews were conducted using semi-structured questioning techniques. The historical documents and interviews were analyzed to answer, in part, the first sub-question, "What are the current policies and procedures for the hiring of full-time faculty?", by identifying the various internal and external factors that were thought to contribute to the process as stated, how it developed, and how it was actually implemented.

In addition to the traditional case study approach, a second phase of the study was undertaken. In it data collected during the interview phase were used to generate a set of 48 statements or phrases related to the second sub-question, "What strategies are being considered for hiring a more diverse full-time faculty in the future?" Participants were asked to rate these statements on a five-point Likert-type scale designed to measure relative importance and then to sort the statements into groups that made sense. The results of the rating and sorting were used

to generate a visual representation or concept map. Participants were then invited to suggest their interpretation of the meaning of the concept maps.

Chapters Four and Five discuss the findings in depth. Chapter Four concentrates on the data collected via phase one of the case study. Chapter Five examines the concept mapping phase of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE RESULTS OF INTERVIEWS AND DOCUMENT REVIEW

This chapter examines the first of the two research sub-questions, "What are the current policies and procedures for the hiring of full-time faculty?" The answer to that question will be in three parts: an examination of the current hiring policies as stated, a brief examination of the history of the college's hiring policies to understand how the process has changed, and an examination of the current hiring policies as they have been implemented. The sources for these data come from in-depth personal interviews and formal documents and reports, both current and archived. These descriptions are also examined in light of the findings from the review of related literature. The chapter begins with a brief profile.

Institutional Profile

The college is governed by a seven-member Board of Trustees that serves alternating six-year terms, plus one nonvoting student trustee elected by the student body for a one-year term. The college President is a nonvoting member of the Board. Two of the trustees have served on the Board for over fifteen years. The Board is the legally responsible agent for the college and is the body that actually hires faculty and staff based on the recommendations of the college President, a black female. The current elected Board is all white. Six are males. The ethnicity and gender of the student representative varies from year to year.

Academically, the college is divided into nine academic departments, plus counselors and library professionals, all of whom are considered faculty. Each of the academic departments has a department chair. The persons responsible for counseling and the library are on the same level of the organizational responsibility. The department chairs report to the Vice President who is the

chief academic officer for the college. He reports to the President. Historically, the college has had one or more vice-presidents responsible for different aspects of the college's operations, but currently there is only one, the Vice President of Academic and Student Services, and he shall be referred to simply as the Vice President.

One former president of the local bargaining unit pointed out that state law requires that full-time community college faculty be represented by a bargaining unit. The current president of the bargaining unit interpreted the state regulations differently. He maintained the state law allowed for a bargaining unit, but was not required. He reported that three or four community colleges in the state did not have formal bargaining units. According to him, the difference between having a bargaining unit and not, is that having a bargaining unit allows for binding arbitration where as not having one does not. The bargaining unit for full-time faculty at Green Acres is not affiliated with a union. Bargaining units for all other groups on campus, including part-time faculty are affiliated with the American Federation of Teachers.

All department chairs as well as the Vice President are tenured faculty members who have the option of returning to the faculty. In addition to the bargaining units, the college has an elected Faculty Senate originally composed of representatives from only the faculty, but is now made up of representatives from all units on campus including department chairs and senior administration. According to the policy manual adopted by the Board of Trustees, the Faculty Senate has the power to send resolutions directly to the Board for consideration even if not approved by the college President. The faculty senate has an Executive Council that is made up of the Senate President and the President-elect, both of whom are elected at large from the entire college membership, along with all other major senate committee chairs.

One of the standing committees of the faculty senate is the Affirmative Action Committee. This committee was formed by the Faculty Senate in the Fall of 1990. Members of the first committee included the faculty senate president, the college's Affirmative Action Officer (at that time a full-time administrator reporting to the college President), the college's Director of Human Resources, and representatives from the supportive professional and nonacademic bargaining units. Members of the Affirmative Action Committee served as representatives on all college searches. The Committee also developed policy recommendations. In 1991 a detailed Affirmative Action Plan was developed by the Committee. This plan included an attempt to quantify for the first time a consistent method for defining the gender and racial makeup of the various job classifications on campus. It suggested a method for determining underutilization of minority groups for all job classification of the college. Such an analysis was to serve as the guideline for the development of voluntary hiring goals for the future. The cumbersome nature of the analysis, various statistical flaws in the methodology, and a reported resistance by department chairs did not keep the report from being filed with and adopted by the Board of Trustees, but no evidence was found to indicate it is being used.

An internal document indicates that in the fall of 1995 (the last full year for which data were available) there were 155 full-time and 318 part-time faculty. Approximately 52% of the full-time faculty were male and 94% were white. Approximately 54% of the part-time faculty were female and 93% were white. Table 1 describes the demographic characteristics of the full- and part-time faculty. Other minorities and women held administrative rank as well as staff positions within the college. The numbers in parentheses indicate the number in each category taken from the first complete job classification analysis and when the current Affirmative Action

Plan was adopted in 1991. Data on ethnicity for 1991 is given only in aggregate form except for whites. The number of full-time faculty members has remained the same (155). There are slightly fewer full-time faculty women in 1995 (75 and 73), with the same number of minority full-time faculty (9). The greatest area of change is in part-time faculty, but these numbers vary greatly by semester. Since 1995 several full-time faculty have been added on short-term contracts who are not eligible for tenure, two blacks (one male and one female), one Asian (female), and one white (female). These numbers compare with a student body that was more female (58%) and more ethnically diverse (78% white).

Table 1.

Faculty Demographics

	Full-time	Part-time	Total
Year	1995 (1991)	1995 (1991)	1995 (1991)
Total Faculty	155 (155)	318 (418)	473 (573)
By Gender			
Men	80 (82)	145 (179)	225 (261)
Women	75 (73)	173 (239)	248 (312)
By Ethnicity			
Asian-American	1	8	9
African-American	8	12	20
Hispanic	0	2	2
Total Minorities	9 (9)	22 (7)	31 (16)
White	146 (146)	295 (411)	441 (557)

Data on current full-time faculty is incomplete. Records show that thirty-three full-time faculty have been hired since the current president came in the 1991 school year. It was not determined if these positions were replacements of if they represented new positions. If they represented replacements, no determination was made regarding the gender or ethnicity of those

replaced. Seventeen of the new hires were women and sixteen men. One new Asian and one new black are reported among the new hires. These numbers may not be accurate as two of the new hires were known by me and they appeared to be black. One of these black new hires has since left Green Acres and the other will be leaving at the end of the current school year.

Exact census data for 1996-1997 for the college district was difficult to estimate accurately because 1990 census data was reported on a county by county basis and the district divides several counties. The largest and probably the most diverse county in the district reported in 1990 to be approximately 85% white, 10% African-American, and 5% Asian-American.

According to an internal personnel description appearing at the end of the 1996-1997 College Catalog, 94% of the current full-time faculty members had completed at least a master's degree and only two had not completed a bachelor's degree. Of the full-time faculty members, 29 (19%) had received a doctoral degree and another 26 (17%) either had two master's degrees or a master's plus an advanced certificate, a degree which is awarded in some fields for work beyond a master's that is less than a doctoral degree.

In October of 1994 a committee of the Green Acres' Faculty Senate conducted a survey of institutional climate. A total of 705 surveys were placed in mailboxes across campus; 321 were returned. The large number of surveys distributed indicated that all job categories including part-time faculty and nonacademic staff were included. The survey forms were not coded so it was not possible to ensure there was no duplication of returned forms. Approximately twice as many women as men returned the forms. The results of this survey were not widely distributed. Only one complete copy of the report exists. Apparently a summary of the findings was distributed across campus.

The survey found that 71.5% of the women and 55.3% of the men reported they had been discriminated against in one or more of the 17 areas listed. The primary area of discrimination reported by women was in salary or pay level. The survey also allowed respondents to make comments. Half (161) of the returned forms included comments. Reverse discrimination was reported to be a problem by 14.3% of the respondents. Gender bias/sexism was mentioned by 7.5% and racism/race was mentioned by 2.2% of the respondents. The report included eight recommendations. In response to what was perceived to be a high rate of response regarding reverse discrimination, the first recommendation of the committee was that the college make regular reports on hiring trends and attempt to determine whether reverse discrimination "is a reality or a perception" (p. 16). The last recommendation of the survey included a call for a survey of institutional climate to be done every two years. In response, a survey by an external agency hired by the college was done in Fall 1996 with the results to be disseminated in early 1997.

The Current Stated Hiring Policies

The current formal, written hiring policies are examined within the current context of the institution including institutional profile, current affirmative action polices, procedures for search committees, procedures for affirmative action representatives on search committees, the current mission and purpose statements related to affirmative action and diversity, and other initiatives begun by the college to help build a more diverse full-time faculty including a "grow your own" internship program having special linkages with historically black colleges and universities and other initiatives not directly related to hiring. These initiatives were included because they were thought to have a potential influence on College culture in such a way as to influence the faculty

hiring process indirectly.

Current Affirmative Action Policy

Green Acres' current president takes a highly public position in favor of diversity, and the college has a number of initiatives designed to increase the diversity of its full-time faculty. The college's current Affirmative Action Policy was adopted in 1970. It was revised and reaffirmed in 1991. Formal guidelines for all searches on campus including full-time faculty were adopted in 1984 and were revised in 1989 to include faculty as members of full-time faculty and administrator search committees. Formal training programs for affirmative action representatives on faculty search committees were instituted in 1993. The college's mission and purpose statements were modified and policy manuals changed to reflect an increased institution-wide commitment to diversity. A new initiative known as Diversity 2000 was implemented in January 1995 with the specific intent of providing internships for minority faculty. None of these initiatives have been evaluated formally.

The description of the College's current Affirmative Action Policy (adopted in 1970 , revised and reaffirmed in 1991) is taken from the 1996-97 College Catalog and states:

> It is the public policy of Green Acres College to assure for all persons freedom from discrimination because of race, color, sex, national origin, religion, age, Vietnam era veteran status, marital status, medical condition, creed, ancestry, or sexual preference with respect to employment, academic opportunities, contractual services, and construction of college facilities, which discrimination threatens the rights, privileges, opportunities, and freedom of all persons; and menaces the institutions and foundations of democracy. The opportunity to be gainfully employed without discrimination because of race, color, creed, age, religion, ancestry, national origin, sex, or sexual preference, are basic rights in any free society.

Search Committee Guidelines. Formal guidelines spell out in detail the process by which a full-time faculty position is filled. The 1996 Policy and Procedures Manual of the college

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contained a complete description of the faculty hiring process. The document was available to anyone with access to the worldwide web (www) and was located on the college's homepage. The hiring policy described the search committee as consisting of at least four members including the department chair for the area where the search was being filled, two faculty members from the discipline where the position was being conducted, and one member from another department chosen by the department chair. The manual did not rule out the possibility of larger committees. The term "department chair" in this study is used in a broader sense than that in the Policy and Procedures Manual. The manual distinguishes between department chairs and other academic hiring authorities. In the manual, the various positions that have faculty rank (including tenure) include library and counseling staff as well as the academic staff or classroom teachers. The term "department chair" is reserved for those who administer instructional programs, while other hiring authorities refer to those administrators over the library and counseling staff. These positions occupy a similar level on the college's organizational chart and are simply referred to in this study as department chairs. Table 2 on page 101 presents the complete faculty hiring process.

Affirmative Action Representatives. The 1996 Policy and Procedures Manual also describes the position of Affirmative Action Representative for each search committee. The Affirmative Action Representative is a faculty or staff member who has undergone additional training to become more familiar with state and federal guidelines on affirmative action/equal employment opportunities. The representative is charged with certifying that the process has followed the college's internal guidelines as well as determining if an adequate pool of candidates has been achieved prior to the beginning of the elimination process. The Affirmative Action Representative serves in a nonvoting capacity.

Each Affirmative Action Representative must participate in a workshop given by the college's Director of Human Resources and the President of the College. According to an agenda for the most recent training session, the workshop explains the historical basis for affirmative action guidelines and the college's procedures on what may and may not be done by search committees. As of January 1996 thirty-five faculty and staff had completed the training and agreed to serve as Affirmative Action Representatives.

Current Mission And Purposes. The college's mission and purpose statements as described in the 1996-1997 College Catalog include the following statement of purpose: "To engage students actively in the process of developing a perspective on and appreciation for cultural diversity." Immediately below the mission and purpose statements were the following statements on cultural diversity adopted by the college's Faculty Senate in 1993:

> Green Acres College's commitment to cultural diversity entails learning about and respecting cultures other than our own; emphasizing similarities among cultures and appreciating their differences; sensitizing the faculty, staff, and administration, and students to the plurality inherent in the term "culture"; broadening our own personal definitions of culture; and bridging cultures.
> Green Acres College will help spread the awareness of cultural diversity to the residents of [the College's district]:
> - Respecting the inherent rights of all persons to live with dignity and freedom.
> - Respecting individual rights of expression.
> - Setting a standard for the larger community by promoting sensitivity, communication, and understanding among people with differing beliefs, color, gender, cultures, and background.
> - Encouraging affirmative action for students, faculty, and staff.
> - Providing opportunities (e.g., curriculum development, art exhibits, theatrical presentations, and special events) for increasing our awareness of cultural differences and personal lifestyles within our college and within our communities.

The Diversity 2000 Internship Project

A new initiative designed to increase the pool of qualified minority applicants was begun

in 1994. The initiative was designed to identify potential minority faculty members who had not had any significant classroom teaching experience (high school or college) and, who, if hired, would be given a one-year teaching contract at the college. Minority status was determined in a very broad context based on underrepresentation within a particular department at the college. If it was determined that a particular department had too few representatives from any ethnic or gender group, and if a sufficient full-time class load of 30 credit hours for the year was available, a vacancy was declared. For example, if there were too few men in nursing and a number of nursing courses were taught by part-time faculty, a male applicant in nursing might be considered for internship. The intern was paired with an experienced full-time faculty member paid to serve as mentor for the intern.

The Diversity 2000 Internship Project involved several additional elements. A committee of faculty and staff was created to visit colleges that had a high concentration of blacks such as historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs) and other colleges in the South. The purpose of the visit was twofold: first, it was to inform both faculty and students at the site visits about the role of the community college, particularly in those areas of the country where there has been limited exposure to the community college concept; and second, to help students at the site visits learn how to write more effective applications with the secondary hope that they would apply to Green Acres.

To date two site visitation teams have been formed. One team visited colleges and universities in the New Orleans vicinity. One candidate was hired out of this process during the first year. The next year a second team visited colleges and universities in the Houston area. Three more have subsequently been hired, though it is not clear if any of these hires were related

to either of the off-campus visits. A benefit reported by the individuals who participated in the visits was stronger support for the Diversity 2000 Internship Project.

Linkages with Historically Black Colleges and Universities

The college has also begun steps to link with HBCUs. The primary focus of this linkage is to provide students of Green Acres College with the opportunity to more easily transfer to HBCUs upon graduation, though there also appeared to be some hope on the part of the college that these HBCUs might be more willing to encourage their own graduates to consider the possibility of employment at the College. The 1996-1997 College Catalog identified four HBCUs that had a formal 2 + 2 articulation agreement with the college. A 2 + 2 articulation agreement means that a formal agreement exists such that the students from the College will be given junior standing at the HBCU upon graduation from the college.

Other Initiatives Indirectly Related to Hiring

In addition to taking steps to increase the diversity of new faculty, the college has implemented staff development programs designed to increase the awareness of its current staff to issues related to diversity. In 1992 the college was awarded a Model Program Award by the American Association of Women in Community Colleges. Staff development on diversity issues was implemented soon thereafter including collegewide diversity training.

Green Acres College also established a Center for Multicultural Education created to address, in part, staff development issues related to issues of access, equity, and diversity. This Center sponsored regular seminars, one institution wide attitude survey, and a series of modules in diversity training designed to make the campus more inclusive. To date a total of 67 faculty and staff members have completed all of the modules, of whom 17 are participants in this study. A

brochure developed by the Center describe the titles for the six workshops as follows:

1. An overview of diversity work, issues, and concerns in education.
2. Understanding how our biases, assumptions, and stereotypes impact educational climate and achievement.
3. Creating inclusive educational communities for culturally diverse and minority students seeing the system as a social system.
4. The hidden curriculum: causes and effects of intercultural conflict in the classroom.
5. The chilly climate in the classroom: creating inclusive classrooms for culturally diverse and minority students.
6. The chilly climate outside the classroom: creating inclusive student support systems for culturally diverse and minority students.

The Center has responsible for other activities related to issues of diversity. In 1993 the College hosted a major three day statewide conference on diversity with a number of experts in the field of diversity and multiculturalism. Keynote speakers for the event included James A. Banks, expert on multicultural education; Patricia Hill Collins, expert on revising the curriculum; and Myra and David Sadker, experts on classroom gender bias. In addition to the keynote speakers, a variety of panels and workshops led by high school and community college practitioners from across the state were held on topics ranging from curriculum reform to assessing the institutional climate. In 1994 the college received a Ford Foundation Grant for a Summer Institute for Faculty and Diversity to train local business people on diversity awareness. Out of this set of workshops, the diversity training program for community college faculty and staff evolved.

Current Faculty Hiring Process

The 1996 Policy and Procedures Manual described the formal process by which full-time

faculty are hired by the College. The process consists of 18 steps. Table 2 lists the steps of the process in the order in which they should occur, describes briefly each of the steps, and identifies the authority charged with the responsibility for completion of each step is identified in parenthesis.

Table 2.

Hiring Process Flow-chart

1. Vacancy is declared. Timelines for search are established. (Vice President and appropriate department chair)
2. Job description is created and position announcement drafted. (Vice President and appropriate department chair)
3. A plan is established for internal and external advertising. (Vice President and the Director of Human Resources)
4. The search committee is formed and meets with the Vice-President to establish ground rules. (Department chair)
5. Applications are accepted by the Office of Human Resources. (Director of Human Services)
6. The Search Committee Chair is selected (Department chair and the chair of the Faculty Senate Affirmative Action Committee) and the search committee reviews recruitment efforts with the Affirmative Action Representative. (Department chair, Search Committee chair, and/or the chair of the Faculty Senate Affirmative Action Committee)
7. The search committee (or others designated by the department chair with the approval of the search committee) does initial screening to determine if applicants have met the minimum advertised requirements. (Search committee or department chair).
8. The search committee develops and applies criteria for narrowing the list of applicants to three to five applicants to be interviewed. (Search committee)
9. The search committee composes list of questions for interview. (Search committee with review by the Director of Human Resources).

(table continues)

Table 2 (continued)

10. Selected applicants are brought on campus for interview. (Director of Human Resources)

11. The search committee interviews applicants and observes the applicants in a simulated teaching experience. (Search committee)

12. The President and Vice President interview the applicants. (President and Vice President)

13. The search committee chair (or others designated by the search committee) verifies candidate's prior service and performance through phone interviews with references provided by the applicants. (Search committee chair)

14. The search committee recommends applicants in either ranked or unranked order. (Search committee)

15. The department chair and Affirmative Action representative see that all appropriate paperwork has been completed. (Department chair and Affirmative Action Representative)

16. The President is presented with the recommendation and either approves it or not. (President)

17. If approved, the Office of Human Resources makes an offer, or, if not approved, the search is reopened. (Director of Human Resources)

18. If the offer is accepted by the applicant, a recommendation is made to the Board of Trustees or, if not accepted, the search is referred back to the search committee. (President)

A similar set of procedures for the hiring of Diversity 2000 interns was described in the 1996 Policy and Procedures Manual,.but there were several differences between the hiring process for regular full-time faculty and Diversity 2000 interns. The President and Vice President received applications from individuals who had expressed an interest in participating in the Diversity 2000 Internship Project. A vacancy determination for interns was made by department chairs based on the possibility of developing a full-time teaching load, the equivalent of approximately ten three-credit hour classes. After the department chairs determined if a full-time teaching load could be developed for their departments, the applications were reviewed by the

department chairs and the Vice President to determine if the applicants meet the minimum qualifications. The applicants for whom there was a "load" were brought on campus for interviews similar to the interviewing process used for full-time faculty. A faculty team similar to, and in some cases the same as, a regular full-time faculty search committee was responsible for conducting the interviews and making recommendations for hire. Following the recommendations, the department chairs met as a group and rank order the applicants. The President and Vice President determined the actual number of internship positions that will be offered.

In the first year one Diversity 2000 intern, a black female, was interviewed and hired. In the second year, five applicants were brought on campus for interviews. Three interns were hired: one black male, one Asian female, and one white female. Interns have expressed concerns about the limited time of the contract. The interns reported barely getting started when they had to begin to focus their attention on finding another job.

The college had a number of strategies designed to increase the diversity of full-time faculty already implemented according to various college documents. In the next section, historical documents from the college's archives are examined to determine how some of the strategies came into existence, and interviews of faculty and staff members who have been at the college for a number of years who share their understanding of how the college changed are presented. In the third section of this chapter interviews on how various faculty and staff experienced the implementation of theses strategies are reported.

A Historical Perspective

The current policies and procedures for hiring a more diverse full-time faculty evolved

over a number of years, probably as a result of a variety of forces. The first part of this section examines documents and other materials from the college's archives that relate to the current policies and procedures for full-time faculty hiring. The second part of this section includes interviews and reflections by the interviewees on how faculty were hired under previous administrations.

Affirmative Action

One way to understand how the hiring policies and procedures changed at the institution was to look at how affirmative action has been dealt with over the years. As indicated earlier, the first Affirmative Action Policy for the college was adopted in 1970. It was 1978, however, before any reference to affirmative action appears in the college's catalog. In the college archives several photographs and articles from two local newspapers regarding the construction of the college's campus indicate there were protests by a group of local black citizens over the lack of minority hiring by firms constructing the campus. This coupled with letters dated at about the same time by both the college and representatives of a local black coalition suggested that the college adopted an affirmative action policy only after the group of local citizens began to protest. It should be noted that while there were black professionals on Green Acres' staff at the time, the position of Affirmative Action Compliance Officer was filled by one of the custodial staff who was black. This individual was referred to variously as the Affirmative Action Officer or as the Assistant Affirmative Action Officer. He served until his untimely death in a traffic accident in June of 1978.

The college's response to state and federal mandates related to affirmative action can be viewed as one of compliance, which is to say that the college did not disregard the mandates, but

took few steps beyond or before those actually required by law. The Affirmative Action Policy adopted by the Board in 1970 preceded any formal requirement by the federal or state governments. However, a report issued in 1975 clearly linked the impetus for change to federal mandates, noting the concern of the state's board of higher education for minorities and women students.

> It is almost certain, too, that the [state board] will be involved with the implementation of affirmative action in employment at the state-level just as soon as Federal guidelines are clarified and facilitated. State level activity, however, has not gone beyond a review and planning stage. Clear-cut plans for data collection have not been fixed, and only "voluntary submission" of existing information and reports is being sought.

This same 1975 report claimed that Green Acres College had a hiring record that was consistent with local gender and ethnic demographics. The report quoted Bureau of Employment Security data showing that for the total District, minorities represented 6% of the civilian workforce, whereas females represented approximately 41% of the civilian workforce. The report pointed out that approximately 6% of the academic and professional staff of the college were minorities while 38% were women.

The report asserted that "appropriate qualifications for and performance of specific duties are the basic criteria for employment and promotion of all employees" (p. 4). However, the report admitted the need for more minority faculty in occupational education: "The College recognizes especially the need (as well as the difficulty) to find qualified minority instructors in many career areas where a 'role model' is a pressing urgency" (p. 10).

The plan set forth in the 1975 document identified a number of strategies for hiring a more diverse faculty. These were:

1. The need to advertise both locally and nationally.
2. The need to allow sufficient time after the advertisement to allow contact.
3. The use of unsolicited applicant pools.
4. The need to develop lines of informal communication with local organizations, advisory councils and professional groups.
5. The need for increased attempts at encouraging minorities to enroll in career programs.
6. The need for the College to participate in public service activities designed to create a more desirable living and working condition in the community
7. The need to establish objective criteria to prevent discrimination based on sex or race.

(p. 13-14)

In 1987 the founding President was replaced by the college's second President. Over the next two years the second President introduced a number of changes to the college, including going from six instructional divisions to ten academic departments. A number of senior administrators took advantage of the opportunity offered for early retirement or left the college for positions elsewhere. In addition to changes in the departmental structure of the College, three new Vice President positions were created. In 1988 a full-time Affirmative Action Officer was added as an administrative position. By 1975 and until 1988 the Affirmative Action Officer was also the Director of Personnel. In 1993 the Affirmative Action Officer became part of the responsibilities of the Vice President for Human Resources. When that Vice President was fired, no full-time Affirmative Action Officer was identified, though on paper, the job remained a part of the position of Director of Human Resources.

Application Forms

A review of the forms completed by applicants for full-time faculty positions reflects the college's changing perception of gender and ethnic concerns. Four different copies of the official

application forms used for faculty positions were obtained from the Office of Human Resources. A long-time employee in the Office of Human Resources stated that it was her belief these four forms were the only forms used by the college since its founding. Dates were not included on the first three forms to indicate exactly when a particular form was adopted, but all three had dates entered by applicants indicating the forms had been adopted by at least that date. The most recent application form was dated 1991.

Data on marital status was collected on application forms as late as 1983. Data collected on martial status would violate, at least in principle, an underlying assumption of Executive Order 11246 issued in 1972 (Hill, 1987) if it was used to make assumptions about an applicant's inability or unwillingness to relocate because of his or her martial status. The first form, stamped July 13, 1967, and the second form, dated June 23, 1975 by the applicant, included questions about height, weight, number of children, and ages of children on the form.

Taken by themselves the questions seemed innocuous; however, they did not pertain to qualifications needed for employment as a college faculty member. There was some evidence that this information may have been used in an inappropriate manner. Each of the first 50 individuals employed by the college had a one-page dossier written by the founding president. These dossiers have been kept in the college's archives. Some of the comments reveal language (and possibly attitudes) unacceptable by today's standards. The following are examples of inappropriate language: referring to one female faculty member, "We presume Miss [X] will captain the faculty womens' basketball team. She's 6'1."; or, "Mr. [N] is that unique thing--a man's man in business education."; or yet another, "Mr. [P] is that unique thing--a brainy football hero."; and, finally, "Mr. [S] is a big, good-looking Negro who has accomplished a great deal for his age."

Salaries for 48 of the first hires were determined from the one-page dossier. The 30 original men, not counting the male president, had a mean salary of $10,275 with a median salary of $9,600. The 18 original women had a mean salary of $9,367 with a median salary of $9,050. There was an approximate difference in mean salaries of $900 and a difference in median salaries of approximately $600. The top salaried person ($14,100) was the chair of Physical Education. The top salary for a woman was $13,700.

The first application form included questions about the number of days lost from work in the past four years and asked if the applicant was "in sound health now," but the question on number of days of work lost did not appear on the second form. Again, such questions did not pertain to job qualifications and they left open the possibility that applicants with large families might not have been hired because they were perceived as higher risk. It was also possible that some applicants either falsified the forms or ignored these questions altogether. When the first affirmative action officer died in a traffic accident in 1978, a long-time employee in the Office of Human Resources commented on how shocked everyone was when kids "kept appearing out of the woodwork" to claim his insurance.

Neither of the first two forms included a place for the applicant to enter racial categories. The third form, dated by the applicant January 14, 1983 contained a box on the first page that included references to the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Also included in the box was the disclaimer that it was not necessary to answer any of the questions in the box unless there was a check in a box preceding the question. It was claimed that such checks were placed where there was a "bonafide occupational qualification." Again, no racial data were taken. The absence of racial information on the application form indicated that the college had not yet begun taking any steps

to ensure that minorities were being located and were part of the applicant pools. On the other hand, anyone reading the application had complete access to answers to questions considered off-limits such as age, sex, height, weight, marital status, number of dependents, and "physical defects," assuming that the applicant ignored the disclaimer and completed all of the boxes.

By 1991 the application form had a separate pull-out sheet that contained questions regarding sex, race, age, and handicap status. This form was still used by the College in 1996. The form indicated that information collected from this sheet was held separately and confidentially and was not part of the regular application form. At least two persons interviewed spoke of an internal struggle between the Vice President for Human Resources (a black male) and the president (a black female) as to whether or not affirmative action data would be shared with the search committees. In 1993-94, according to those interviewed, the Vice President of Human Resources felt quite strongly that it would not be possible for search committees to hire minority applicants unless they were aware of who these minority applicants were. Apparently other senior administrators maintained that the confidentiality clause prevented the college from sharing gender and racial data with the search committees. In 1996 search committees were not allowed to review the responses on this sheet. The only person beyond the Office of Human Resources who had access to these data was the Affirmative Action Representative for a specific faculty search.

Policy and Procedures Manuals

The college archives had records of the college Policy and Procedures Manuals dating back to a draft copy in 1968. The draft copy devoted two paragraphs to how "professional personnel" (faculty and administrators) were hired. These statements remain nearly unchanged

today. The 1968 document said:

> Professional personnel are employed on the basis of merit and such employment will be consistent with the regulations of the Fair Employment Practices Commission. Applicants are judged on evidence of professional and personal qualifications, including educational background and experience. Confidential information may be obtained from personal interviews, written communications, and placement office records.
>
> In general, applicants will be screened by either the Dean of Instruction or the Dean of Students. A series of interviews will be scheduled for candidates and recommendations for employment will be submitted to the president for approval. All recommendations for personnel actions by the College Board will be made by the President.

Records of the actual procedures used to determine qualifications or who was to be involved in the interviews either were not kept or do not exist in a written form today. Further investigations with the Secretary of the Board revealed that she also did not have any written documentation of the procedures that were followed. Even though the 1968 document was titled Policy and Procedures Manual there did not appear to be any procedures nor were there any in the subsequent manuals until 1993. In 1989 the document used to describe college policies changed its name to The Policy Manual.

The 1968 manual remained in effect until it was revised in 1970. The only change in employment policies for professionals was an addition to the first paragraph of the sentence, "This information will be held in strict confidence by the college." A 1974-75 revision of the manual added another sentence to the first paragraph saying, "Family relationships will not be a factor in determining a candidate's suitability for employment." In all probability, this sentence was added to reflect a growing concern nationally that marital status was being used to discriminate against women.

The next revision for the Policy and Procedures Manual was dated 1980. There were no

changes to the employment policy for professionals. The 1984 revision found in the archives was apparently only a draft version. There was no new language related to employment of professionals, but there was a note that the sentences in the first paragraph that referred to family relationships as well as the two statements relating to confidentiality were suggested to be deleted. The 1989 version reflected the dropping of the statement on family relationships. The section on employment of professionals in the 1993 and 1996 policy manuals remained unchanged from the 1989 version. The 1993 version of the Policy Manual had a separate appendix that contained copies of the various collective bargaining agreements, but did not contain the specific hiring procedures. The 1996 version of the Policy and Procedures Manual is on electronic media and does contain the specific procedures to be followed by all search committees when hiring full-time faculty.

In 1990 the process for conducting full-time faculty searches was outlined in a document authored by the Director of Human Resources. Many of the items in the process identified at that time remain in place, although the role of faculty in the current search process seems to have expanded. The author described a five-stage process: authorization, announcement, applications, interviews, and employment. The selection committee was not mentioned until the next-to-last stage of the process (interviews), and the role of the faculty was restricted to helping to verify references and identifying recommendations for the finalist.

Faculty Response to Previous Processes

All of the faculty who were interviewed agreed that the hiring process had changed significantly since the time they were hired. Most of these faculty described a situation where the decisions were made primarily by either the Vice President or a department chair. The current

Vice President (the person with the longest tenure at the College who was interviewed and who was hired in 1969) described the process when he was hired this way:

> Answer: He [the Dean] called me and said, "Well [first name], I need you to come down and you're going to need to see the President. I came into his [the Dean's] office. He said just a minute. He went into [the founding President's] office, came back and said. "He thinks you're a nice young man." He kind of snickered. That was it.
>
> Question: Did you interview with [names a department chair]?
>
> Answer: No, no. I'm not sure if I knew [the department chair] or if he was part of the process or not. I don't know, but I know I didn't interview with anyone.

Two years later, in 1971, faculty were reported to have been involved in the interview process, although the level of involvement appeared to be almost incidental. One department chair, originally hired as a faculty member at Green Acres, tells of meeting a department chair from the college at a convention in the mountain states. He was brought to campus along with a colleague and interviewed with several members of the faculty for a short time. His reflections suggested that the interview was "for a few minutes, not very long." He was surprised when both he and his colleague were offered a position because "I later learned that neither one of us made a very good impression on the faculty, but [the department chair] wanted us."

Ten years later, in 1981, the faculty still had only minimal involvement in the selection process. A faculty member hired that year described the process as follows:

> Answer: There were five faculty in the interview. I won't say who they were, but halfway through the interview, one of the people from the department slammed down a fist and said "I won't listen to any more of this fascist way of doing things," and stomped out of the interview. I never saw that person again in the whole interview process. I'm sitting there thinking "Wow, I guess I have punted this little job." The people left were embarrassed. They weren't embarrassed about the outburst just the

> unprofessionalism of it. I found out later that I wasn't the first choice of the committee. [After being hired] one of the faculty members on the committee took me to the side and said "You weren't my choice, but [the department chair] hired you anyway."

These three recollections suggest that prior to the current hiring policy, faculty members had little, if any, say in the determination of who was hired. It would appear that most the actual hiring decisions were made by either the department chairs acting alone or in conjunction with the Vice President. There did not appear to be a long standing perception that the faculty hiring process was a faculty prerogative. But, it did appear, based on other conversations, that faculty hiring had become more of a faculty prerogative in recent years.

Introduction of Diversity Concerns

One department chair recalled that the idea behind Diversity 2000 was not new, in the sense that the founding president had, in the past, directed that minority candidates be sought out and hired, despite the lack of teaching experience several of those applicants hired. The practice of hiring inexperienced minority faculty was not widespread nor long-lasting. Only one minority faculty hire was identified by this department chair. It could not be determined if other departments had taken advantage of this opportunity.

All interviewees who had been at the college under previous presidents described the current diversity concerns and the current hiring process as the product of the current President and Vice President. The President was perceived as being the person who created the vision for the current process. The Vice President was perceived as being the person who developed the policies and procedures to make the vision work.

One faculty member described the introduction of diversity concerns as follows:

Question: What about how we hired people back then?

Answer: Oh, we weren't even interested in hiring diverse people. That wasn't even a word that was uttered.

(Pause)

Question: Was there any faculty input on those decisions?

Answer: Yes. There were a few of us who were saying we needed more diversity. It went in one ear and out the other [referring to the founding President].

Question: Did [the second President] add to or detract from the change?

Answer: Who knows. Whatever he did was undone by the other stuff he did. For one thing, he did not know how to explain this to the board. She [the current President] does. He had no way. She really knows how to make her values and her vision clear to them. He just did not. It was like an adversarial thing-diversity in your face. You need to have the board understanding what you are doing.

The Role of Affirmative Action

The role of affirmative action in changing the college's policies and procedures for hiring a more diverse full-time faculty was perceived by those interviewed as having only limited impact. The interviews revealed differences in answers to the question, "What if affirmative action were to 'go away'?" Some viewed the possible lack of impact from a positive frame, and others saw it more negatively. According to the President:

Question: What if affirmative action were to go away?

Answer: I think we're always going to have affirmative action, and we always did have it. It was just that some groups were excluded. Affirmative action only means that you're going to go beyond your generally accepted processes for getting people into the applicant pool and that you're not going to maintain a position of neutrality in recruitment and selection. You don't have to call it affirmative action, but [there must be] some process by which [you] get as many good people in the applicant pool, exemplary people in the applicant pool, as possible.

(She continues)

> I think you're going to have it in some form or another, whether you call it affirmative action or not. I think the problem with affirmative action is where you set aside a percentage of jobs, and have numerical goals, which were never in the law itself. Those things were imposed when affirmative action wasn't getting the desired results. Affirmative action is only one part of Executive Order 11-246, and that's the piece that deals with recruitment. But the other part deals with really evaluating your own internal polices and procedures. And both of those are good. Most people only address the affirmative action part and we have attached everything that shouldn't go with it such as numerical goals, quotas, and set-asides. Most educational institutions approached affirmative action in the purest sense, and have not had quotas, etc.

The Vice President discounted the impact of affirmative action regulations on policies and procedures at Green Acres College.

> Answer: I think it may have gotten some people's attention. But I think most of the people that have been involved with [the process] have been pretty committed to the notion personally and professionally. It's been more of a personal and professional commitment as opposed to a direct reaction to some federal or some other kind of external guidelines, pressures, or whatever. Of course, that's the key to making it work.

> Question: If affirmative action were to go away, what do you think would happen, what would take its place, and what would be the consequences?

> Answer: What I'd like to see happen is that our board of trustees would then have to take a leadership position in terms of setting some goals - goals might not be the right word. [Rather] setting an "atmosphere," setting some directions, providing some leadership. I think then, too, the administration would have to do something similar. And I think then the Faculty Senate would also be asked to set some statements of direction and tone, and so forth.

Faculty members tended to agree that potential loss of affirmative action would have only a limited effect on the actual hiring practices of the college. One faculty member put it this way.

> Answer: We've had affirmative action in place for all these years, and I don't know what it's done to diversify Green Acres. It's not about what's on the books, it's about people's intent, it's about commitment. I support affirmative

action but I don't think affirmative action on the books is going to be the deciding factor. I think it's going to be the hearts and minds of individuals here at Green Acres and decision-makers as they make decisions about hiring, on search committees and that sort of thing. It's not about whether there's an umbrella policy in place anywhere. It's going to have to do with what happens right here, at the grassroots decision-making level.

Question: If the President were to leave and someone else were to come in, would the initiatives be far enough in place that they would continue on their own? Are they at a critical mass yet?

Answer: Not today. At the administrative level there's absolute buy-in. Would the trickle down continue? I don't know that we have a sufficient level of buy-in at the troop level yet.

Another faculty member concurred:

Answer: I think people feel like affirmative action has driven a whole lot of work. In substance I don't think affirmative action's had very much effect on it [the hiring process]. People see paperwork around and they think "this is a lot [of work]" see it as a really significant increase [of work]. And the primary drive, it's not affirmative action. I think people want someone who will fit in well and by fitting well I mean they teach well, work well with colleagues -- all this is arguing for homogeneity rather than diversity.

There was a sense among some faculty that the potential loss of affirmative action would have only a limited effect. One faculty member agreed, but she had a more cautious view of the process.

Answer: I'd like to think that we're sophisticated and aware enough we'd still make sure of all our options. We would not deprive anybody of the opportunity. I'd like to think that in the past, even if the process hasn't been smooth, we were cognizant of what we needed to do. I'm not sure we don't sometimes spin our wheels because of affirmative action. Once in awhile we hire someone who's not the best person for the job, and that backfires on us. We've hired minority persons who didn't work out. It bothers me that the third choice was the one hired.

One staff member who had served as an Affirmative Action Representative had an even more negative perception of the role of affirmative action in the process.

Answer: I'm not sure it [the loss of affirmative action] would impact it [the process] that much. I don't think affirmative action works very well. I'm involved in the process because we say we're committed to it, and I want to be of service to the institution, but I've seen too many times where the search process is already pretty much a done deal. I also have seen a lack of seriousness on the part of the upper-level administration in actually following the affirmative action guidelines that we've set.

In summary, historically the college has slowly moved from compliance to a more proactive approach to hiring a more diverse full-time faculty. These changes were thought to be linked to the arrival of the current president, a black female, and the structures she had initiated. Fears that changes in affirmative action policies on the federal level might result in a withdrawal from the commitment to diversity on the local level were not borne out. However, the question of the extent of acceptance of such policies and procedures by the full-time faculty and staff remained. The next section examines how the present policy has been implemented and experienced by those involved.

How the Present Policy Was Experienced

Interviewees who had been at the college for a long time agreed that the policies and procedures regarding the hiring of full-time faculty had changed to reflect the current President's concerns for hiring more women and minorities. These interviewees also generally agreed that the policy as it was stated was how it was implemented. (Those who identified exceptions are noted.) One of the most potentially significant changes over previous policies at the college was to involve the faculty much more deeply in the selection process. Yet, a review of the demographic make-up of the full-time faculty noted earlier in this chapter revealed there has been little change in gender ratios and no change in ethnic ratios over the last six years that the current President has been at the college.

One exception to how the process was implemented was reported by two interviewees, both white females. They both described what appeared to be the same search where the committee chair forwarded a name other than the name chosen by the committee. In both reports, the interviewees voiced their concerns to senior administration, but to the best of their knowledge the department chair's decision stood. Another department chair described a search where the search chair alienated the committee by not following the process and was ultimately removed as chair. Several interviewees reported slight variations to the process such as the number of people on the search committee. Several reported faculty searches where the department chair was a member of the search committee, but did not actually serve as chair as the process indicated.

The process called for search committee members and the Affirmative Action Representative to be trained in Green Acres' faculty hiring process. Hill (1987) found that training for search committees was an important factor in whether or not search committees hired minority applicants. Several types of training sessions were observed. At one all members of new search committees for 1997 were invited to meet with the Vice President. The Vice President reviewed the steps in the process as outlined in the Policy and Procedures Manual. He also answered questions from the floor. A second training session was also observed This training was for the faculty and staff that had agreed to serve as Affirmative Action Representatives. The training that was observed consisted of little more than a review of the history of affirmative action and an overview of the college's Policy and Procedures Manual. The trainees were given copies of the forms that they needed to sign to demonstrate that the process had been followed, but did not receive instructions on how to fill out these forms or what to do if irregularities did occur. Both training sessions appeared to be meet the minimum training discussed by Hill.

With these exceptions those interviewed described the flow of the process in essentially the same way as that described in the 1996 Policy and Procedures Manual. The eighteen-step hiring process used by the college was similar to the eight-step hiring process described as a model (Marchese, 1987). The eighteen-step hiring process met the guidelines established for affirmative action in that not only was the process open to all and applied equally to all, but positive steps were taken by the college over and above those required by federal Equal Employment Opportunity requirements. The college had also established, on paper, an accountability system to document the process, though there had not been a formal evaluation of any of the processes.

How Diversity Was Understood

The question of how diversity was understood by the different interviewees may shed light on why the gender and ethnic ratios for full-time faculty at the college had not changed in recent years. As will be shown in interview responses, that the goals of hiring a more diverse full-time faculty were not made clear or at least were not understood in the same way by faculty, staff and administrators. For some , the college's diversity meant reflecting or "mirroring" the student population served. If 23% of the general population was minority, then 23% of the faculty should be minority as well. For others, diversity meant faculty who were different from the population students had experienced up until college. For still others, diversity was measured in terms that could not be easily articulated.

The President defined diversity as "underutilization in any academic area, whether it's gender underutilization, or in some cases geographic underutilization, and certainly race underutilization." The Vice President said,

Answer: We need to have a faculty that is representative of the students they serve. I think we are seeing that the students in most disciplines are also becoming more diverse, in terms of a male-female balance, in terms of various minorities and nationalities, etc. I take a very broad view of diversity. I think in some disciplines where they are predominately male, we ought to have some females. And, in some disciplines where they are exclusively female, there ought to be some males, for example nursing.

The distinction between underutilization and underrepresentation may seem trivial at first glance, but there are important distinctions between the two phrases. Underutilization implies that there are an adequate number of applicants in some particular category -- they are just not used. Underrepresentation implies that there are not an adequate number of a given category in a job group -- leaving open the possibility that that might be because there are an inadequate number of applicants of that category in the pool.

To many of the faculty interviewed, diversity was understood in even broader terms than those defined by senior administrators. To one faculty member (said in all seriousness) having a "cowboy with tobacco stains on his fingers" would add to the college's diversity. Another faculty member described diversity this way:

Answer: I really think if you stood back and looked at a faculty that was diverse, you'd see a faculty of different races, men and women, old and young. You would also see creative people versus conservatives. You'd see people who want to be leaders, administrators, and people who are dedicated to teaching forever. Personally, I don't think we have enough minority teachers. I think in some departments we have a predominance of males or females and we ought to fix that problem. In some, we have all older people. It's hard for students to relate to older people. I think age has to be considered. I think age should be considered.

A third faculty member described diversity not in terms of faculty, but in terms of students and the different skills and styles these students bring to the classroom.

Answer: Diversity means diversity in the student body, of gender, race, ethnicity,

> culture, sexual orientation, class, all of those things, and seeing that our students are not made from one kind of mold. So when we talk about students, we have one image of what they are, but they are really quite diverse. The consequences of that diversity is diversity in learning styles, the ability to be included by the campus and the curriculum, or excluded, and how those issues impact retention and student success. So that's what it means to me. The whole next issue would be how do you create an inclusive institutional and classroom climate for those diverse students.

Perhaps one of the more interesting definitions of diversity was best captured by a faculty member as:

> Answer: I think we need to emphasize diversity is US, not THEM. We all make up a mosaic called diversity, that it is our collective selves that bring about that phenomenon, and that it is not THOSE people we're looking towards, but it is US we're looking to enrich and broaden. I think we can begin to encourage, to challenge in a productive way the growth and the turning of attitudes about what real diversity is.

Not all of those interviewed expressed a belief that diversity was good for the college, at least diversity understood by simple external characteristics such as gender or race. The view of one white male faculty member seemed to reflect a more conservative perspective such as might have been maintained by the majority of California voters in Proposition 209.

> Answer: One of the things that particularly bothers me about the area of diversity is how folks go about defining what the word diversity means. One of the things that is disturbing to me is that they allow the crudest forms of what it means to be human to be the main determinants as to what qualifies as diversity. It too often leads to stereotypes. "Aha, this is a black person. Therefore, they will probably think this way." There is no heterosexual point of view unless it is defined in those crude ways. There is no homosexual point of view....There is no black point of view....There is no white point of view. There is no any of those things unless I allow my own definition to trap me into superficiality.

Whether or not these faculty members were correctly interpreting the President's definition of diversity was open to question. At least three other faculty and staff volunteered, off

the record and with assurances of confidentiality, that they had doubts about the President's commitment to a broad definition of diversity. It was their impression that when she said diversity she really meant black, regardless of what she might say. Certainly no one who was interviewed defined diversity in religious terms. There was also some evidence in college documents that might be interpreted to exclude certain racial groups from the diversity umbrella. The 1991 Affirmative Action Committee report (based on 1980 census data) attempted to group the number of women and minorities in various job classification groups but excluded the category of Asians as a minority, but this might also be attributable to the fact that Asians were not a separate category in the 1980 census. The 1990 census did include Asians as a separate racial group, suggesting Asians were the second largest minority group in the college district, but there were no tenured full-time faculty at the college who were Asian. One Asian was hired on a one-year Diversity 2000 Internship. In 1996 there are two Asian administrators.

Some faculty and staff consider diversity to be composed of qualities not easily measured or quantified. One of the underlying themes identified throughout the interviews was whether diversity was a quality or something that could be quantified. One of the white male faculty members thought by others to be conservative with respect to diversity issues rejected that label and claimed a special understanding of diversity issues when he disclosed that he had adopted and raised a black son. He described the need for a more qualitative understanding of diversity this way,

> Answer: Qualitatively, I think it's a matter of dispute whether the diversity is lacking. Qualitatively, the perception on the part of one segment of our faculty and staff is that we're sorely lacking in multiple perspectives, that this is evidenced in curriculum instruction and employer relations in a variety of ways. From another perspective we have considerable diversity,

> comparatively speaking, by our proximity to [named a large midwestern research oriented university] and the more or less multicultural midwest community, certainly not as much as communities on the west coast, but for the Midwest more advanced than in other nearby towns. And then on the part of another constituency, and I think it's a significant one, from old-hires so to speak, diversity is a dangerous movement which should either be ignored because the power structure of the college is committed to it, or silently resisted with no explicit resistance to it.

(He goes on)

> I am mostly uninterested in quantitative concerns. I'm deeply into qualitative concerns, and have been all my life. To me diversity is a matter of value. I think it is an openness to alternative experiences, to intercultural understanding. It is a matter of sensitivity to what you don't know about yourself, and about others who are different from you. You'll notice I carefully left out gender and race in that description. To me diversity is someone who can be characterized as situated to be a viable worker within a diverse environment as one whose mind is nimble, open, and sensitive. I've seen people who come off the farm fields who have never met a black before who have that capacity, so I've gotten to the point where to focus on gender and race issues is needed for people who haven't thought much about what diversity is, but for those who care deeply about it, it is irrelevant. Here's how I look at it. Seek qualitative, not quantitative.... So I would say if indeed an institution's broad commitment to the qualitative aspect of diversity doesn't pay off quantitatively, or the quantitative changes don't show over time -- positive trends that reflect the qualitative commitment-- then there's some questions to raise about the qualitative commitment. But it's a mistake to focus your effort on the quantitative. So the quantitative is a check over time, but I'm increasingly convinced, not just what's happening at Green Acres, but the focus on the quantitative is corrupting, corrosive.

Despite the President's clear and very public proposition on diversity, her position was perceived in vastly different ways by different segments of the college. The sample of faculty and staff who were interviewed were not selected randomly, nor was there an attempt to assure they were representative of the attitudes held by the college faculty and staff as a whole. Nevertheless, these persons had vastly different ways of defining the term diversity. It was possible the

tolerance of such differences by senior administrators was itself a mark of diversity and such tolerance may have benefitted the institution in some way such as helping to reduce internal political tensions.

The Importance of Diversity

While the ethnic and gender ratios of full-time faculty had not changed in the last six years, there was some evidence of more understanding by faculty of the importance of diversity. However, just as there were differences between how the term diversity was understood, there were also differences regarding why diversity was important. One faculty member remarking on why the college needed a more diverse faculty explained, "It gives students: (a) better role models and (b) a better avenue for communicating one-on-one with faculty". Another faculty member described the reasons for diversity as follows:

> Answer: I have talked to black students and they have said they have a difficult time communicating with some white people. They feel more comfortable with black people for the most part. I would feel very uncomfortable if I walked into an all-black college, or one of a few. I'd like to think that the issue will go away eventually, but there are a lot of things that can be contributed by a person from a different culture. For example, instead of letting kids out on Martin Luther King Day, let's keep them in school and teach about him. Students on welfare have taught me a lot I didn't have any comprehension of. Information and experiences need to be shared. Male versus female points of view, perspectives. If you have a course that's taught by all men, a female might feel she's not given a chance to communicate her perspective.

Another faculty member put it this way:

> Answer: There are some faculty who welcome diversity and there are others who are threatened by it and who don't know how to teach diversity at all, so they do a lot of stupid things unfortunately, like ignore the diverse students in the classroom, not give them eye contact, and that creates a situation that the student feels excluded and drops out.

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Other faculty argued that a more diverse full-time faculty might not be well-received by the students. He pointed out that many of the college's students came from a rural, non-diverse background and might feel threatened by someone who did not speak "proper English." Department chairs were required by state law to certify that all faculty spoke fluent English. No common English usage test or other objective evidence was required. At least one Diversity 2000 intern was reported to have been rejected on the basis that the applicant did not speak fluent English.

Differences on the meaning of diversity and its importance might not directly influence whether a particular candidate was hired or not. However, such differences might have impacted what evidence was allowed for determining qualifications and/or fit. Caplow and McGee (1958) and Burke (1988) indirectly raised the issue of what counts as evidence of qualification when they identified the role of queing in higher education placement. Queing suggested that some degrees and some institutions granting those degrees were better than others. Thus, merely holding the appropriate degree was not sufficient evidence for determination of qualification for faculty positions. Schneider raised an additional question when he discussed the role of fit as understood by search committees. Potential faculty who thought they might not fit might not apply. Applicants perceived to not fit might not be hired, or if hired might not stay. These two themes, qualifications and fit, were not spelled out in the formal hiring process outlined in the 1996 Policy and Procedures Manual, but did surface in the analysis of the interview data. The issues of qualification and fit may work against the concept of hiring a more diverse full-time faculty.

The Criteria of Preparation

Preparation, encompassing both academic and teaching experience, was a crucial criterion

used by search committees to determine the qualification of a candidate. Typically, three "cuts" or points in the process where a number of applicants were eliminated were reported. The first cut was based on whether or not the applicant met the minimum requirements as outlined in the position announcement. Several search committee members commented on how surprised they were at the number of people who obviously did not meet the stated minimum qualifications. One department chair remarked that it was not uncommon for about a third of the candidates to not meet minimum stated qualifications.

With regard to academic preparation, faculty who teach courses that transfer are required by the state community college coordinating agency to have a minimum of a master's degree in the subject or related area taught in order to meet minimum qualifications. Career programs are subject to both community college regulations and the state school board. Faculty who teach in areas where experience is considered to be the primary qualification, such as career programs, are exempt from the academic requirements by the state community college coordinating system rules. However, the state school board does require that faculty in career areas have 2,000 hours of relevant work experience. A department chair described one search in a career area where a college degree for the applicant became an issue:

Question: What was the degree that he didn't have?

Answer: A B.S. He was A.S. certified, but didn't have a B.S. We decided to offer him a contract contingent upon finishing his B.S. That's sort of how we set it up.

Question: A B.S. is not required for the position though, is it?

Answer: No.

Question: It was just in how the job description was set up?

Answer: The first time we required a master's. The second time a B.S. The third time we did not state a degree requirement.

Question: How important do you think a degree is in that case, really?

Answer: I'm biased by this case. I think it's important, but it certainly isn't - by no means, number one.

Question: What is number one?

Answer: Knowledge of the technology in certain cases would be one and two.

Appropriate academic preparation was one of the criteria applied for the second and third attempts to narrow the list of applicants. It was reported that it was common for attempts to be made by most search committees to achieve a consensus among the members regarding the relative importance of academic preparation. One faculty member described the consensus-making process this way:

Answer: The first cut is very broad, and with each successive cut we take more of the criteria and get it down to a workable number. Everybody participates in this. We meet on the first cut, and if someone's on the border we usually keep them. Then there's a second cut.... After that third cut we still may have five or six people, then those people are ranked based on all the criteria.

It was difficult to separate out how some thought of academic preparation-either as a question of qualification or as a question of "fit." One faculty member spoke negatively of applicants that held a doctoral degree, presumably because such people would be more interested in research than in teaching.

No one addressed the issue of queing (Finnegan, 1993) directly or if the degree-granting institution was important. Several suggested that the college's location in close proximity to a large research-oriented university provided an opportunity to attract a more diversified pool of

applicants than other community colleges not so located. On the other hand, one faculty member felt that the college's location was a potential negative factor because it might attract applicants preoccupied with research or activities other than teaching.

Based on my observations of past search committees at community colleges, there seemed to be an unstated preference for graduates from certain local universities over those of other nearby universities. These preferences varied by department and area of specialty. Unlike research-oriented universities, it is possible that degrees from local and other prestigious universities may work against applicants for faculty positions at Green Acres College. However, this was not always the case. When Green Acres was founded there was a deliberate attempt to attract and select faculty who had graduated from highly prestigious institutions such as Harvard, Yale, and the Sorbonne in France. Possibly, as the college has attempted to define its position within a university-dominated community, department chairs used "where graduated from" as a criteria designed to legitimize the community college. Today, legitimation may not be the concern it once was.

The question of academic preparation, particularly with respect to graduation from less prestigious institutions, argues for diversity. The question of teaching experience tends to argue more for homogeneity. One faculty member spoke of the role of teaching experience in a search for computer science faculty.

> Answer: Our first concern here is teaching. We wanted evidence they were coming here to teach. There were a few who had applied who had 7 to 10 years teaching experience, and there were probably double that number with 7 to 10 years that only had one or two semesters as TAs [teaching assistantships]. Our concern was that they understood our primary mission was teaching and not research. It has long been an established practice that a candidate is required to make a presentation to the department on a topic

that is chosen by the department. It is fairly easy to tell if they understand the teaching process and whether they have put their heart into the effort or if they do a minimal sort of thing. We did have one come in, and [he] was just poorly prepared. He had great qualifications, fine transcript. It turned out he lived in the same house with his references. When he got here he not only was unprepared, but he was unable to communicate in any sort of orderly process. He was definitely unqualified. The other two presenters did a very fine job of presenting. One had more of a sense of humor than the other did. The other lacking the sense of humor was foreign born, but he was very knowledgeable. There was a very open and friendly sort of tone and body language with his presentation. During the interview process he was very congenial and both open to learning from us and learning about the community.

Another faculty member described some of the dangers of relying too much on traditional definitions of teaching experience:

Answer: I think if you look at the ads and they say community college teaching, you've just eliminated most of the diverse [pool of applicants]. [T]he historical lack of minority teachers to begin with means there aren't many around. If they [community college search committees] are not willing to take a chance with a new person, they're not going to get anybody.

Question: What's your sense of where Green Acres is on this issue based on the search committees you've been involved with?

Answer: Almost everybody says they prefer community college experience, so that drops people out who've only been TAs, drops people out who have taught high school and upgraded themselves to a master's to teach at a community college. These are places where most of us came from.

Question: Why do you suppose that is?

Answer: Well, I don't think there's something sinister going on. I think people just want less hassle. They want good teachers. They don't want students to be a training ground for new teachers. It makes sense in the short run. In the long run it means you replace people with people just like those doing the selecting.

The most recent announcement for eight tenure-track faculty positions for Fall 1997 listed the minimum academic preparation on a position by position basis. The requirement for teaching

experience was listed at the top of the announcement along with other requirements that apparently apply to all eight positions. The announcement stated that, "These positions require a demonstrated commitment to teaching, familiarity with community college philosophy, ability to work in a team concept, commitment to multicultural education, and the ability to work with culturally diverse student populations." The interpretation of what counted as evidence for meeting these requirements was apparently left to each individual search committee.

There seemed to be some disagreement between the President and the Vice President with respect to the question of experience. At a meeting to review faculty search procedures for the search committee members involved in the eight searches mentioned previously, the Vice President explained his position regarding the importance of finding experienced teachers. He indicated the College did not provide "on-the-job training." The President, on the other hand, reflecting back on the "early" days of community colleges said,

> Answer: The people we hired earlier weren't teacher-ready, so why does everybody we hire have to be where we are now? [names a Department Chair] and I talked about it. I said when he came here he didn't know anything, he didn't know anything about teaching, and he's considered an excellent teacher.

To examine the thesis that some of the early hires for the college were not "teacher-ready" a number of records from the college's archives were reviewed. The founding President left a one-page dossier on each of the 49 early faculty members hired, on what were then called "faculty contracts" with no dates given but with reasonable evidence to suggest that most were hired prior to the Fall of 1967. Of these forty-nine, four could not be compared because they were more closely aligned to what would now be called supportive professionals. Of the remaining 45, 14 were hired into career areas. Others, including librarians and counselors, were considered to be in

the transfer area for this analysis. Nine were described as having no prior experience teaching and seven of those were in career areas. The remaining 36 had prior teaching experience at various levels. Those who were listed as having teaching experience had taught at high school (22), junior college (10), and four-year colleges and universities. The numbers do not add up to 39 because all experience was counted and some had experience in all three levels.

It would appear that historically the college had indeed had a mixture of faculty with and without teaching experience. The low number of initial hires with prior experience at community colleges probably reflected the relatively fewer number of community colleges in 1967. Since that time there has been a large growth in community colleges and in the percentage of faculty who are hired with teaching experience. However, it probably cannot be emphasized enough that, given the low number of minority faculty currently teaching in community colleges (Cvanacara, 1995), any requirement of any teaching experience, particularly at community colleges, can rule out many minority candidates.

The Criteria of Fit

A second recurring theme found in the analysis of the interview data that seems critical in determining the actual criteria used in hiring a more diverse faculty dealt with the question of fit and the role that it played in the hiring decision process. Most of those interviewed agreed that fit played a role in hiring, though the exact nature of that role seemed to vary. One faculty member described fit this way, "You need to be willing to fit into the society, our culture, and occasionally a candidate will reach all the way to the interview point and only then will you discover that they don't fit into our cultural background." Another faculty member said, "I think fit's very important in terms of who eventually gets hired. I think that's kinda touchy, because clearly there are going

to be members on the committee who don't feel like they fit very well with this person." He goes on to caution, "There's always going to be an inherent danger if the members of the committee are unethical, that they'll let the fit thing take too much weight."

A different faculty member argued that fit is important not only with other faculty members, but with students as well.

> Answer: I think people want someone who will fit in well and who--by fitting well I mean they teach well--will work well with colleagues. All this is arguing for homogeneity rather than diversity. People infer that people with a sharply different background [will not work well with colleagues], although I've never heard that stated. Also, I think people believe a faculty from extremely diverse backgrounds will not be able to connect with our students, given the demographics of our college and the sophistication of most of our students, especially our young students. People think faculty from diverse backgrounds might not fit, students wouldn't like them, they wouldn't like students.

A fourth faculty member, referring to a perceived difference between what is written on the application form and how the search committee applies its criteria, described the question of fit this way.

> Answer: I think that [what is on] paper sometimes helps the clarification for what the potential is for the individual. But I think a lot of that -- probably 50% of the decisions -- happens outside of what is strictly written on the piece of paper. That happens in any search committee, the biases of what school you came from in terms of your training, the biases on what your experience has been, the bias on who does or doesn't know you, of how your materials look, those kinds of things, the bias of where you're from. All those things come to bear in terms of the ultimate fit, because it's not just credentials that the search is looking for. I am convinced that search committees all over, including Green Acres, are looking for fit.

How then do search committees resolve the question of fit? One faculty member denied that the issue was ever raised openly:

> Question: Did the committee actually talk about this idea of fit in so many words?

Answer: Oh no. No!

Another described the decision as being determined during parts of the interview other than the formal question and answer portion.

> Answer: We go out to lunch and talk off the record. We talk about kids, family. From that you get "How do you do this?", " What do you do if?", "How do you teach?" You get a feel for the personality, charisma, what they think about students. It's still a seat-of-the-pants decision, but I think it gives you a feel. They also do a teaching presentation. We tell them the purpose of this is to look at their teaching style. I think that also gives you a feel for the person's personality, how they feel about teaching, and they talk as they go. That's just another way to get to know them.

Given this perspective towards the concept of fit, one wonders whether fit works against women and minorities. It was not always possible to easily identify what the factors are that lead to a sense of not fitting in. What follows is how a faculty member who holds a Ph.D. described a situation where a new faculty member failed to fit in. The new faculty member was black, was in the final stages of completing a Ph.D., and was the only full-time minority in the department of mathematics and computer science, although there had been part-time minority faculty members in that department before.

> Answer: In one instance in our department, we decided that it was more important to hire the person, only to find that indeed the person didn't fit into our culture, and we've learned from that. I think it's important to fit into the college culture. I think that our department is flexible enough that anyone who cares about students will fit. We've never had any other person that didn't fit that I can recall, and that person didn't fit from the beginning and he didn't know that. He thought he came in and made adjustments. He found the level of teaching didn't challenge him sufficiently. He didn't serve on committees. He just came and taught. We thought we could make it happen, but it didn't.

It would probably be too simplistic to dismiss the above faculty member's comments as either those of a racist or of one who felt threatened by anyone holding an advanced degree. This

faculty member was widely respected across campus, had participated in diversity training and was one of the faculty members on the second recruiting team to visit off-campus sites for the Diversity 2000 Internship Project. Others faculty struggled more openly with the possible racial overtones, particularly with regard to the question of fit. Here is how one faculty member put it:

> Answer: How do we get the need and the desire for diversity factored into the subconscious "do they fit" analysis? Again, I think we have a ways to go on that. Because usually a person of color is not necessarily fitting into some of the norms that we unconsciously are already establishing here. So, we, as a college and individuals on search committees, have to do a shifting of our norms to make those unconscious analyses broader.

Fit then, perhaps more than academic preparation, seemed to be a more likely candidate for influencing the implementation of the process in such ways as to work against the hiring of minority applicants. After the criteria of academic preparation had been applied, after the evidence of teaching experience had been weighed, after the interviews were completed, and after the references were checked, the decision by each individual search committee member to hire one applicant over another turned largely on the often unexamined criteria of how well a particular candidate "fit in."

It might be possible that the "fit" factor can be altered by the use of professional development training that focuses on an awareness of the issues of racism and sexism that underlie the formal faculty hiring process. It would appear that this might be what was partially behind the efforts at the college referred to as diversity training. One faculty member, when asked about other activities needed to develop a more diverse staff responded, "training. I think you can make people more diverse just by teaching them about it....Diversity training that's been done this year opened my eyes to things I hadn't thought about, made me more aware of things in my own

classroom." Another faculty member was a little more cautious. He maintained that "we don't change people's minds as much as we change people."

The President reflected on what has changed during her administration as follows:

Answer: I don't believe much has changed except I think there's an awareness we ought to look at different criteria. We don't have to get people who have a great deal of experience. I think we have become more aware that quality doesn't necessarily have to be defined in ways we've defined it before. I think there might be a greater sensitivity to the need to hire underrepresented groups -- not that we're doing it, because we haven't found them to be of quality, but I think the sensitivity is there.

(She continues)

I think anywhere you look where diversification has occurred with faculty, there have been special initiatives. We cannot rely on their normal process because it won't provide for diversification. Our traditional thinking does not allow innovation, creativity, different rules, different thinking to come into traditional processes. We still believe that the more years you have the better you are. The more degrees you have the better you are, and the more traditional your approach has been the better you are.

Other Related Findings

Several other findings may ultimately be associated with the hiring of more women and minorities to full-time faculty positions at Green Acres College. For at least five years now there has been an unwritten policy of maintaining a somewhat fixed ratio between the percentage of classes taught by full- and part-time faculty. Currently the ratio is approximately 50:50 based on number of classes taught. When a full-time faculty vacancy occurred, either through retirement or resignation, the Vice President determined which vacant positions were to be filled. The Vice President, with the President's approval and in conjunction with a broadly representatived planning committee, determined if new positions were to be created. This issue of control of the number of full-time faculty became relevant to the issue of hiring of a more diverse full-time

faculty because the Vice President, with the President's and Board of Trustee's approval, could alter the current ratio of full- to part-time faculty by increasing the number of full-time faculty. He could adjust the ratios in such a way as to act as an incentive for departments to get more full-time faculty provided they were willing to hire these additional faculty from underrepresented groups. No such proposal was offered for consideration at the time of this study.

Another area related to the hiring process was budget. The Vice President determined the amount of money budgeted for faculty recruitment and, in cooperation with the Director for Human Resources, determined how those monies were allocated. It was estimated by a representative from the Office of Human Resources that a typical faculty search cost between $1,500 and $5,000 depending on how many candidates were flown in for interviews. The exact amount of money spent on advertising and recruiting of faculty could not be determined.

No records of efforts being undertaken to determine how or how much money was allocated by similar community colleges in the Midwest for advertising and recruiting faculty exist. One conclusion that can be drawn is that decisions made by the college were not data-driven in making the determination if sufficient resources were being allocated to faculty recruitment or if those resources were being allocated in the most effective manner.

Summary of Findings

Together, the twin issues of qualification and fit seem act as important factors in determining if women and minorities were hired by Green Acres College. These two factors are not identified as a part of the formal procedure in the hiring process, but rather seemed to serve as informal criteria. Another way to conceptualize the role qualifications and fit play in the hiring process is to think of them as lenses that alter how the process is perceived. They seemed to

dominate the hiring process and may result in homogeneity rather than diversity. This was consistent with findings in some published literature. Rynes and Gerhart (1990) observed that "objective" qualifications such as academic preparation and teaching experienc have little explanatory value when it comes to who is hired and who is not. Schneider (1987) used his Attraction-Selection-Attrition (ASA) theory to predict that search committees result in more homogeneity rather than less. The issue of fit was one way in which the ASA theory was borne out at Green Acres College.

A number of interviewees rejected the notion that committees tended to replicate themselves, yet the fact remained that gender and ethnic ratios for full-time faculty at the College have changed little since the current full-time faculty hiring process was implemented over six years ago. It is possible that racism was a factor that undercuts attempts at a fair and equitable process designed to increase the chances of hiring a more diverse faculty, particularly at the critical point of determining fit. Katz (1991) noted white faculty largely deny any racism. Gaertner (1973, 1976) and Gaertner and Divido (1986) demonstrated racism can exist within the well-intended in subtle and often unexamined ways. Some might read undertones of racism in the language used by two white faculty members after visiting one of the HBCUs when they reported that they were surprised that black students there were "so well-behaved".

It is less clear how academic preparation may have limited the number of minority applicants that were hired. Mickelson and Oliver (1991) warned that blacks were often not fairly evaluated because they graduated from less prestigious universities. Overall, graduation from a prestigious university seemed to have a somewhat negative relationship to being hired at Green Acres for both white and black applicants. There was some evidence to suggest that having a

Ph.D. may not be considered positively. Repeatedly, interviewees reiterated the perception that community colleges were about teaching, not research. Such a position assumes that having a Ph.D. precludes someone from being a good teacher and wanting to remain one. What seemed to count most in the area of preparation was prior teaching experience at the community college level or at least at the undergraduate level.

Interviewees expressed concern that they were interested in potential faculty members who were interested in the students, but it was not clear how that factor was judged. Students played no role in the selection process, even when it came to the teaching simulations.

The most frequently voiced complaint about the current faculty hiring process was the large amount of time required to complete a search. When a number of hours was specified, the most common response was 15 to 20 hours for a typical search. If the higher of the two numbers is used, the time for a search represents about 3% of a year's load for a full-time faculty member. The finding that faculty perceived the search process as very time-consuming was consistent with findings by Lawhorn and Ennis (1995) who also noted time commitments were a serious obstacle.

One major question asked was, "Has the current process changed the racial and ethnic makeup of the faculty at the college?" There are the same number of minority full-time faculty members in the Fall of 1995 as there were when the Affirmative Action Plan was put into effect in 1991 with a slight decrease in the percentage of full-time female faculty members (47% down from 48%). There has been a significant increase in part-time minority faculty over the same period both in absolute numbers (22 up from 7) as well as percentages (7% up from 2%).

An area that suggests the future may hold changes in the implementation of the process is the rapid increase in the number of females serving as department chairs. The selection of

department chair varies by department, but has usually been by vote of the full-time faculty. The president has never rejected a department's choice of chair. In 1991 there were a total of twelve department chairs, of which only two were female. By the Fall of 1996 the number of department had been reduced to eleven, but five of the chairs were female. Scollay et al. (1989) reported "a relatively small absolute representation of women and minorities produces a substantive impact" (p. 259). Given the trend towards more women as department chairs, we may see a substantial impact in the near future at Green Acres College.

An intriguing difference between the use of two words to describe the minority applicant pool may prove to be a key to unlocking why white male faculties do not hire more minority faculty. The President of the college referred the lack of minorities and women as underutilization, implying that an adequate minority pool existed. Others (mostly white males) used the phrase underrepresentation, implying an adequate minority pool may not exist.

The next chapter examines how the participants conceptualize various strategies for hiring a more diverse full-time faculty in the future.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE RESULTS OF CONCEPT MAPPING

Chapter five answers the second research question, "What strategies are being considered for hiring a more diverse faculty in the future? To answer that question a software system was used, The Concept System (Trochim, 1996a).

This chapter begins with a discussion of the statements on strategies believed to help increase diversity of the full-time faculty. These statements were generated from in-depth interviews and a contextual analysis of related documents. Following the statements is the point map, a two-dimensional representation of how the participants perceived the similarity between the statements. The point map was created using software-generated statistical techniques based on how the participants sorted the statements.

Following a discussion of the ratings is a section on bridging values. Bridging values were numbers (0.00 to 1.00) generated by the software to assist the researcher in understanding the points on the map. Bridging values reflect the extent to which a given statement was associated with other nearby statements. A bridging value for a statement suggested participants placed that statement in a group with similar, nearby statements. A higher value suggested that a statement was placed in different groups by different participants.

Next is a section on cluster maps. Cluster maps have boundaries drawn around groups of statements to aid understanding of how participants asses similarities. After the cluster maps, a section on pattern-matching (ladder diagrams) is presented. The pattern matches compared how two different groups rated each of the clusters. The chapter concludes with a summary of the findings of the concept mapping phase of the study.

The Statements

Based on information obtained through interviews and extant college documents, statements describing actual and potential strategies for hiring a more diverse full time faculty were developed. These statements were reviewed by 30 faculty and staff purposively selected from Green Acres for the purpose of examining the statements for omissions, duplications, and clarity. Feedback from the respondents led to further changes and refinement of the statements. The revised list of statements was again circulated to the group for another review of the items looking for duplications, omissions, and clarity. A total of 48 statement emerged from the process. Demographic data was also solicited from the participants. Two of the department chairs involved in the two initial reviews were not asked to participate in the later stages of the mapping process because they had not recently been involved in any faculty hiring in their departments, nor were any openings anticipated. A total of 26 of the 27 participants completed all or part of the study giving a response rate of 96%.

A total of 48 statements were used for rating and mapping purposes. Each of the statements were thought to be a strategy for hiring a more diverse full-time faculty. In 1993 a committee composed of faculty and staff presented a plan for increasing the pool of minority applicants. The recommendations of this committee were adopted by the collegewide planning committee composed of a broadly based representation of faculty and staff in a document referred to as part of the 1993-94 Operational Plan. Each of the statements marked with an asterisk (*) was derived from the original 1993-94 planning document. The plan indicated timelines for the implementation of the strategies. Those strategies would have been implemented by the time this study was started if the timelines had been followed. The 48 statements as they were randomly

assigned a statement number are listed here:

1. Make the Vice President responsible for planning and evaluating faculty search procedures.

2. Ask faculty members to help identify potential candidates in their discipline.*

3. Actively involve high school counselors in encouraging students to teach at the two-year college level.*

4. Ensure that the Affirmative Action Representative is involved from the beginning of the search process.

5. Specifically identify and target prospective graduate students.*

6. Allocate college resources to provide placement services for spouses of prospective applicants.*

7. Recruit faculty from colleges with programs similar to Green Acres'. *

8. Have the Vice President meet and brief each faculty search committee as soon as it is appointed.*

9. Develop a recruiting package for use when visiting colleges.*

10. Recruit former students who have completed baccalaureate degrees or higher.*

11. Develop a joint spouse program for community employment opportunities.*

12. Have the President clearly articulate the goal of hiring a more diverse faculty.

13. Develop effective measures to evaluate the search process.

14. Track former minority students with professional teaching credentials and invite them back to campus.*

15. Offer one-year faculty exchanges with other colleges and universities.*

16. Obtain lists from colleges with significant numbers of minority graduates and follow-up with their placement offices.*

17. Ensure that all part-time faculty are notified of full-time openings.*

18. Identify graduate students who could be mentored by a Green Acres faculty member.*

19. Identify champions who will recommend and support diverse candidates throughout the hiring process and ensure those champions sit on search committees.

20. Contact labor unions and trade/professional organizations that represent individuals with specific skills.*

21. Enhance diversity training programs for current faculty and staff.

22. Ensure that membership on the search committee is broadly representative.

23. Offer visiting professorships.*

24. Develop a mentoring program with community college faculty for prospective graduate students prior to their receiving their graduate degree.*

25. Develop a sense of faculty ownership in the search process.

26. Involve the search committee at the earliest steps in the process, including writing the position description.

27. Establish joint agreements with senior institutions for students beginning graduate degree programs.*

28. Increase the number of contacts with qualified candidates through professional and community organizations.*

29. Educate the Board of Trustees on the importance of a more diverse faculty.

30. Emphasize the location of Green Acres in relationship to the nearby research-oriented university.

31. Identify present Green Acres students who can, with the College's help, complete their B.A. and M.A. and return to teach for the college.*

32. Network with minority councils of AACC such as the National Council for Black African Affairs.*

33. Utilize existing advisory committees in recruiting qualified applicants with non-educational experience.*

34. Provide sufficient resources to support the search committee.

35. Develop a pool of faculty and staff who are trained in affirmative action guidelines to serve as Affirmative Action Representatives on search committees.

36. Provide training to search committee members.

37. Establish joint agreements with historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs) as well as other designated educational institutions with high percentages of minority graduate degree students.*

38. Develop recruitment materials that feature Green Acres as a progressive premier community college.*

39. Strengthen ties with vocational training programs at senior institutions.*

40. Develop scholarships and other incentives for high school and college students in areas of greatest need.*

41. Initiate recruitment efforts focusing on companies in transition or early retirees.*

42. Establish an Affirmative Action Officer who is separate from the Office of Human. Resources.

43. Provide reliable feedback to the faculty and staff on the numbers of minorities in the student population.

44. Identify and target strategic employment fairs where the college should be represented.*

45. Make department chairs responsible for increasing the diversity among their full-and part-time faculty.

46. Identify potential change agents among the faculty and staff and provide them with additional training in such areas as leadership.

47. Provide training for search committee chairs in how the process should work.

48. Make certain that candidate's visit is a pleasurable one.*

These 48 statements reflect a broad range of possible strategies. For example some statements related to specific recruitment strategies such as:

Identify and target prospective graduate students,

Network with minority councils of AACC,

Initiate recruitment efforts with companies in transition, and

Recruit former students,

Others focused on the need to develop recruitment materials such as:

Develop a recruitment package for use when visiting colleges,

Develop materials that feature Green Acres as a premier community college, and

Identify and target strategic employment fairs where the college should be represented.

Some of the statements reflected concerns about the search committee process such as:

Provide sufficient resources to support the search committee,

Provide training to search committee members,

Provide training for search committee chairs in how the process should work, and

Ensure that membership on the search committee is broadly representative.

Still others addressed responsibility issues such as:

Make the Vice President responsible for planning and evaluating search procedures,

Have the Vice President meet at brief each search committee as soon as it is formed,

Make department chairs responsible for increasing the diversity among faculty, and

Have the President clearly articulate the goal of hiring a more diverse faculty, and

Educate the Board of Trustees on the importance of a more diverse faculty.

The 48 statements reflected a broad range of strategies for increasing the pool of minority applicants and increasing the diversity of full-time faculty.

The Point Map

After the participants had returned the data collection forms including demographic information, sorted data, and rating sheets, the responses were entered into the software, The Concept System (Trochim, 1996a). Data analysis involved sorting the data and creating a nonmetric binomial matrix showing a similarity of sort where the highest values represented the highest level of agreement among participants. Other statistical analyses (multidimensional scaling and factor analysis) were performed on the matrix. As a result of this analysis a number of maps were generated. The first map is called a point map (see Figure 1) and displays all 48 of the statements in relationship to one another. Proximity of points on the map is reflects the degree of similarity. In other words if the participants judged any two items to be similar by placing them in the same pile, the software captured that similarity by placing the two items near each other.

A number of the items were judged to be similar. For example, two points near the middle of the map, 2 and 17, are near one another and both relate to faculty. Specifically, statement two says, "Ask faculty members to help identify potential candidates in their discipline." Statement seventeen says "Ensure that all part-time faculty are notified of full-time openings." Such similarities are located throughout the map. For example, near the middle of the top three statements are nearly on top of one another, 4, 26, and 36. All contain the word "search." The map appears to be divided into two broad regions. Statement 48, "Make certain that candidates visit is a pleasurable one," is located between the two regions.

Figure 1. Point map with 48 statements.

The Rating Scale

The participants were asked to rate the 48 statements on relative importance using a five point Likert-type scale where 1 meant Not Important to 5 which meant Extremely Important. Table 3 shows the average for each of the statements and for the cluster as a whole. A complete listing of the statement averages ordered by relative importance can be found in Appendix E.

Table 3.

Cluster Statements with Ratings and Bridging

#	Statement	Rating	Bridging
Cluster 1. Selection Process			
1	Make the Vice President responsible for planning and evaluating faculty search procedures.	3.40	0.10
4	Ensure that the Affirmative Action Representative is involved from the very beginning of the search process.	4.20	0.02

(table continues)

Table 3 (continues)

#	Statement	Rating	Bridging
Cluster I. Selection Process (cont.)			
8	Have the Vice President meet and brief each faculty search committee as soon as it is appointed.	4.24	0.16
13	Develop effective methods to evaluate the search process.	4.24	0.08
19	Identify champions who will recommend and support diverse candidates throughout the hiring process and ensure those champions sit on search committees.	3.12	0.29
22	Ensure that membership on the search committee is broadly representative.	4.16	0.00
25	Develop a sense of faculty ownership in the search process .	4.28	0.15
26	Involve the search committee at the earliest steps in the process, including writing the position description.	4.00	0.05
34	Provide sufficient resources to support the search committee .	4.16	0.06
35	Develop a pool of faculty and staff who are trained in affirmative action guidelines to serve as Affirmative Action Representatives on search committees.	4.44	0.26
36	Provide training to search committee members.	4.24	0.03
47	Provide training for search committee chairs in how the process should work.	4.36	0.03
	Cluster Averages	4.0 7	0.10

#	Statement	Rating	Bridging
Cluster 2. In-house Issues			
12	Have the President clearly articulate the goal of hiring a more diverse faculty .	4.20	0.75
42	Establish an Affirmative Action Officer who is separate from the Office of Human Resources.	2.68	0.43
43	Provide reliable feedback to the faculty and staff on the numbers of minorities in the student population.	3.84	0.52
45	Make department chairs responsible for increasing the diversity among their full-and part-time faculty .	3.44	0.42
46	Identify potential change agents among the faculty and staff and provide them with additional training in such areas as leadership.	3.32	0.69
	Cluster Averages	3.50	0.56

(table continues)

Table 3 (continues)

#	Statement	Rating	Bridging
Cluster 3. Diversity Training			
21	Enhance diversity training programs for current faculty and staff.	3.92	0.66
29	Educate the Board of Trustees on the importance of a more diverse faculty.	3.96	0.69
	Cluster Average	3.94	0.68

#	Statement	Rating	Bridging
Cluster 4. Communications			
2	Ask faculty members to help identify potential candidates in their discipline.	3.44	0.62
17	Ensure that all part-time faculty are notified of full-time openings.	3.96	0.57
48	Make certain that each candidate's visit is a pleasurable one.	4.60	1.00
	Cluster Averages	3.99	0.73

#	Statement	Rating	Bridging
Cluster 5. Spouse Services			
6	Allocate college resources to provide placement services for spouses of prospective applicants.	2.64	0.87
11	Develop a joint spouse program for community employment opportunities.	2.80	0.83
15	Offer one year faculty exchanges with other colleges and universities.	3.68	0.70
30	Emphasize the location of Green Acres in relationship to a nearby research-oriented university.	3.32	0.87
	Cluster Averages	3.11	0.82

#	Statement	Rating	Bridging
Cluster 6. Recruitment Package			
9	Develop a recruiting package for use when visiting colleges.	4.32	0.27
23	Offer visiting professorships.	3.44	0.3
38	Develop recruitment materials that feature Green Acres as a progressive premier community college.	4.36	0.52
	Cluster Averages	4.04	0.38

(table continues)

Table 3 (continues)

#	Statement	Rating	Bridging
Cluster 7. Networking			
3	Actively involve high school counselors in encouraging students to teach at the two-year college level.	2.60	0.06
7	Recruit faculty from colleges with programs similar to Green Acres'.	2.80	0.09
14	Track former minority students with professional teaching credentials and invite them back to campus.	3.88	0.01
16	Obtain lists from colleges with significant numbers of minority graduates and follow up with their placement offices.	3.68	0.01
20	Contact labor unions and trade/professional organizations that represent individuals with specific skills.	3.72	0.11
32	Network with minority councils of AACC such as the National Council for Black African Affairs.	3.68	0.13
39	Strengthen ties with vocational training programs at senior institutions.	4.04	0.07
40	Develop scholarships and other incentives for high school and college students in areas of greatest need.	3.52	0.10
	Cluster Averages	3.49	0.07

#	Statement	Rating	Bridging
Cluster 8: Recruitment of students			
5	Specifically identify and target prospective graduate students.	3.36	0.05
10	Recruit former students who may have completed baccalaureate degrees or higher	3.24	0.04
18	Identify graduate students who could be mentored by a Green Acres faculty member.	3.24	0.10
24	Develop a mentoring program with community college faculty for prospective graduate students prior to their receiving their graduate degree.	3.36	0.20
27	Establish joint agreements with senior institutions for students beginning graduate degree programs.	3.16	0.08
28	Increase the number of contacts with qualified candidates through professional and community organizations.	3.80	0.05
31	Identify present Green Acres students who can, with the college's help, complete their B.A. and M.A. and return to teach for the college.	3.04	0.16
33	Utilize existing advisory committees in recruiting qualified applicants with non-educational experience.	3.52	0.20

(table continues)

Table 3 (continues)

#	Statement	Rating	Bridging
Cluster 8: Recruitment of students (continued)			
37	Establish joint agreements with historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs) as well as other designated educational institutions with high percentages of minority graduate degree students.	3.92	0.00
41	Initiate recruitment efforts focusing on companies in transition or early retirees.	2.60	0.12
44	Identify and target strategic employment fairs where the college should be represented.	3.92	0.08
	Cluster Averages	3.38	0.10

The software computed average values along with mean and standard deviation for the statements based on the ratings given by all participants. The distribution of the ratings for the 48 statements was skewed toward the high end of the scale. The mean rating was 3.99 out of 5.0 which indicated that the raters, on average, viewed a large number of items as either Extremely Important or Important. One of the statements, "Make certain that each candidate's visit is a pleasurable one," was rated more than one standard deviation above the mean. Six statements were rated two or more standard deviations below the mean; however, no statement was rated below a 2.6 indicating none of the 48 statements were judged to be Not Important or Somewhat Important.

Bridging Values

The software generated a numerical value for each item called a bridging value with numbers that range from 0.00 to 1.00. The bridging value for each item suggested the degree to which each item was linked to nearby items. Any item with a low bridging value meant that many of the participants put that item in the same stack as the other items nearby. A high bridging

value suggested the opposite -- there were many differences between where that item had been placed some with one group, others with other groups. Bridging values have two uses. First, the statements with high bridging values represent some ambivalence as to how they should be grouped. Second, when the bridging value is considered along with all others in a particular group, it can provide insights into the domain or construct that underlies the similarity of the statements.

All of the bridging values are presented along with the average ratings in Table 3 above. Four of the statements with the highest bridging values, shown in parentheses, were worth special consideration. These statements should also be viewed in light of where there were placed in Figure 1. The statements were:

48. Make certain that each candidate's visit is a pleasurable one. (1.00),

6. Allocate college resources to provide placement services for spouses of prospective applicants. (0.87),

30. Emphasize the location of Green Acres in relationship to a nearby research-oriented university. (0.87), and

11. Develop a joint spouse program for community employment opportunities. (0.83)

Statement 48 lay midway between the two regions, and its high bridging value of 1.00 suggested the statement could be placed in either region. An examination of the nearby statements suggested that the statements in the region nearby and above focused on the search committee, whereas statements below focused on the recruitment process. The placement of statement 48 midway between these two regions was plausible because it involved both the applicant and the search committee.

Statements 6, 11, and 30 were located on the point map to the left of the other statements in region two. All of the statements seemed to be related to the recruitment process, but indirectly. That is, they did not focus on the applicant, but rather on spouses and location.

Cluster Maps

The hierarchical cluster analysis provided by the software was used to group points on the map by superimposing borders around the points based on statistical criteria (Ward's Algorithm) determining a best fit. The points within a border are referred to as a cluster. The software allows for various numbers of clusters to be examined, ranging from 2 to 47. The decision to use eight clusters, rather than say four or twelve, was made after examining a number of possible combinations. Eight clusters seemed to capture the meaning and understanding of the 48 statements. Figure 2 shows how the 48 points were clustered into eight groups. Figure 3 shows the same eight groups with levels to indicate relative importance.

Analysis of several cluster solutions suggests two general "regions" on the point map. The first "region" was the upper section consisting of three clusters identified by cluster labels as: selection process, in-house issues, and diversity training. The second "region" consisted of the other five clusters: communications, recruiting students, networking, recruiting package, and spouse services.

One of the clusters in region one, selection process, located in the north and middle, contained 12 statements determined to be similar enough to justify grouping them together. In that cluster all of the statements contained the word "search." Nearby, in the same region, was in-house issues, which contained only five statements that were slightly more dispersed. Statement 12, "Have the President clearly articulate the goal of hiring a more diverse

faculty," was furthest from the group. All of the statements in this cluster except number 43, "Provide reliable feedback to the faculty and staff on the numbers of minorities in the student population," used words associated with leadership such as President, department chair or Affirmative Action Officer. The third cluster in the region was the furthest removed, diversity training, contained only two statements: number 21, "Enhance diversity training programs for current faculty and staff," and number 29, "Educate the Board of Trustees on the importance of a more diverse faculty." All three clusters focused on strategies internal to the college.

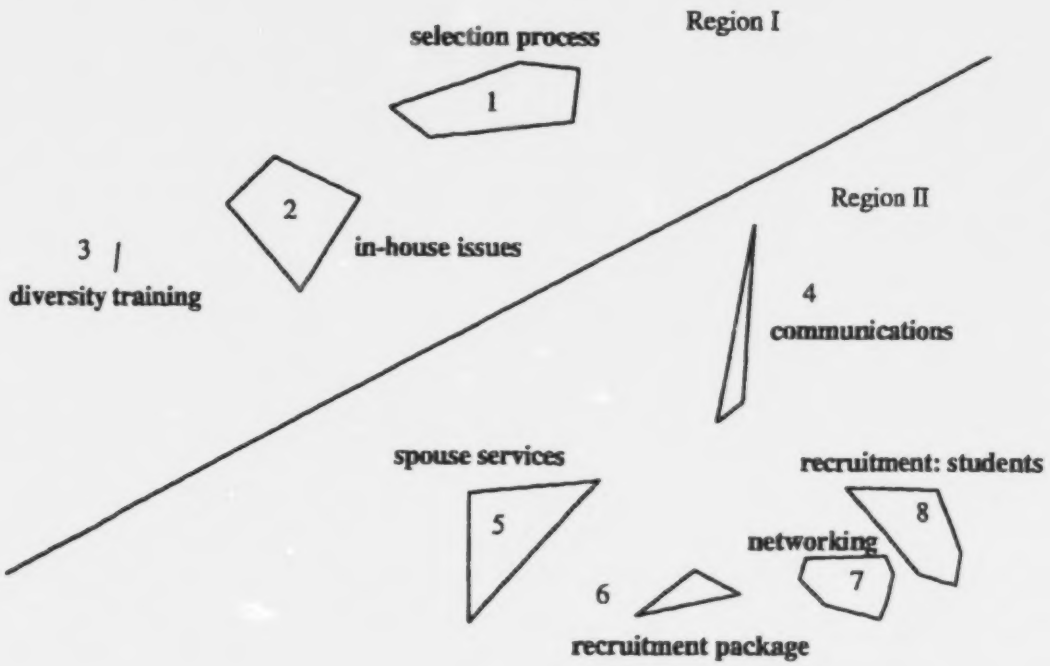

Figure 2. Cluster map with clusters named and numbered and with regions identified.

In the second region, cluster 4 was labeled communications. Two of the statements in this cluster used communications-type words, either "ask" or "notify." The third statement in the cluster, number 48, was located relatively far from the other two. Number 48 said, "Make certain that each candidate's visit is a pleasurable one." It would appear that number 48 could just as easily have been associated with the statements in search process which seems reasonable. The cluster, spouse services, also contained statements located relatively far apart. Two of the statements in this cluster, 6 and 11, both contained the word "spouse." Another statement, number 15, referred to faculty exchanges. The last statement in this cluster, number 30, might have indirectly suggested spouse concerns with the identification of Green Acres near a research-oriented university.

Clusters 6, 7, and 8 all dealt with recruitment issues. Cluster 6 was slightly removed from the other two. Two of the statements in this cluster referred to either recruitment package or recruitment materials. The third statement said, "Offer visiting professorships." Cluster 7, networking, contained eight statements with references to recruitment and institutions other than Green Acres. Seven of the twelve statements in Cluster 8, recruitment of students, contained the word "student." All of the clusters in region two referred to strategies for recruitment. Cluster 4 used words associated with Green Acres such as faculty, which was reflected by a closer proximity between Cluster 4 and the internal strategies in region one. The use of words more indirectly associated with an applicant (spouse) in Cluster 5 was reflected by this cluster being placed further away from the other clusters more directly associated with recruitment.

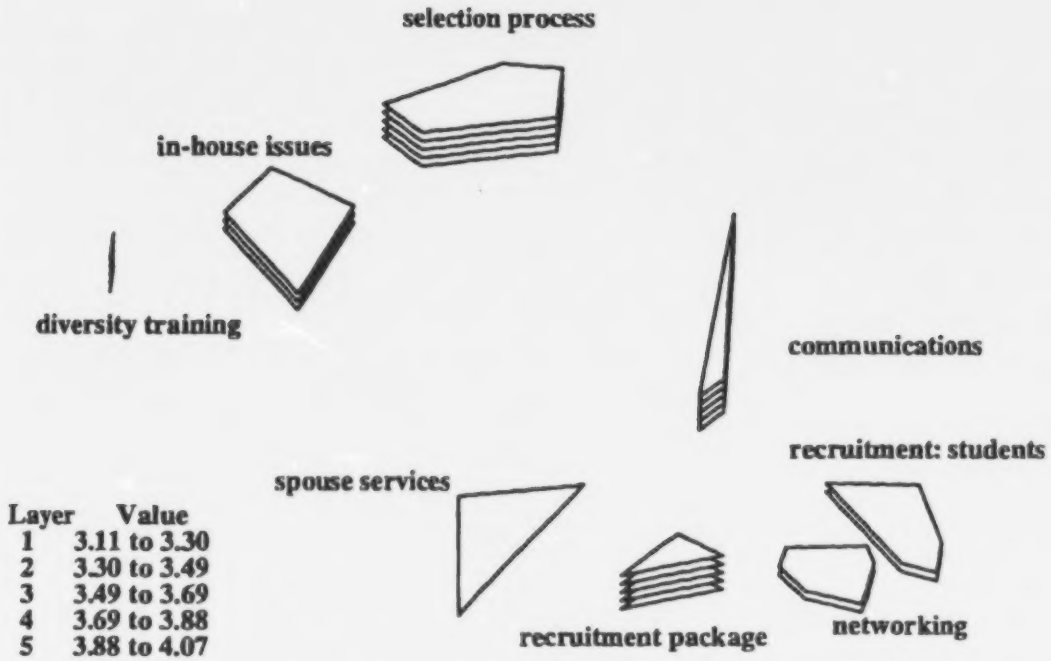

Figure 3. Cluster map showing average realtive importance.

The software generated a cluster map with eight clusters that showed the average rating value for each of the clusters. Figure 3 shows how the participants conceptualized the relative importance of each of the clusters. Cluster 1, selection process, was rated highest (mean rating of 4.07) followed by Cluster 6,.recruitment package (4.04), and Cluster 4, communications (3.99). The averages for these three clusters indicated that participants perceived these clusters to be Very Important. The lowest was Cluster 5, spouse services (3.11), which was considered to be important.

Pattern Matching

The software allows for the different clusters and ratings to be matched based on the participants' demographic characteristics. This matching showed the correlation between any two groups. Findings from the review of literature and the in-depth interviews together with the point maps, cluster data and bridging data suggested enough similarities and differences between groups that warranted further discussion of groupsl.

Stassen (1992) developed a theory that individual behavior with regard to affirmative action plans might be modified either positively or negatively by the extent to which such plans encroach on perceived traditional prerogatives. Hill (1987) and Newcombe (1980) also suggested that middle-level management (department chairs) plays a key role in how effective the search process is in hiring a more diverse staff. Results from interview data indicated Green Acres College had historically placed the primary responsibility for faculty hiring with the department chairs. However, under the current administration, faculty had begun to play an increasingly larger role in the process. It was therefore decided to explore the relationship between how the department chairs rated the statements compared to participants who were not department chairs.

Newcombe (1980) suggested that top administrators must actively create a political climate in which changes like affirmative action can be viewed as both "politically desirable and educationally sound" (p. 356). Interview data indicated the current president had initiated a voluntary program in diversity training for the purpose of altering the climate at Green Acres. Other research (Meyer, 1986) suggested that one way to achieve the appearance of change without actual change might be to create ritual structures. In the case of Green Acres College, a ritual structure might be the Office of Multiculturalism responsible for the diversity training.

Some interview data suggested that diversity training was perceived to be an empty ritual; therefore, it was decided to compare the ratings of those who had completed diversity training at the college with those who had not.

Hill (1987) concluded that one of the impediments to implementation of affirmative action was a lack of knowledge of the process. He described the existence and knowledge of the institution's guidelines for hiring a more diverse faculty as the most important factor in the hiring process. The data from the case study indicated Green Acres had developed affirmative action training programs for faculty and staff who then acted as affirmative action representatives on faculty search committees. For this reason comparing the ratings of those who had completed affirmative action training with those who had not could reveal important differences.

Finally, Hill (1987) concluded that the lack of experience in the search process contributed to the lack of hiring more diverse faculty. It would also seem logical that any differences between how the process was conceptualized in theory and how it was actually practiced might be revealed by examining the responses of those who had the most experience with the actual hiring process. Therefore, a comparison was done between persons with experience compared to those with less experience. The demographic data provided by the participants included an open-ended scale for reporting the number of searches conducted in the last seven years. Based on a natural break in the data, anyone who reported having served on more than six searches was grouped as experienced.

Comparing Department Chairs to Those Who Are Not

Figure 4 allows for the comparison of relative importance ratings of the 48 statements between department chairs and all other groups. The President of the college (self-identified as

not a department chair) was excluded from either group. The Vice President (self-identified as a department chair) was included with department chairs.

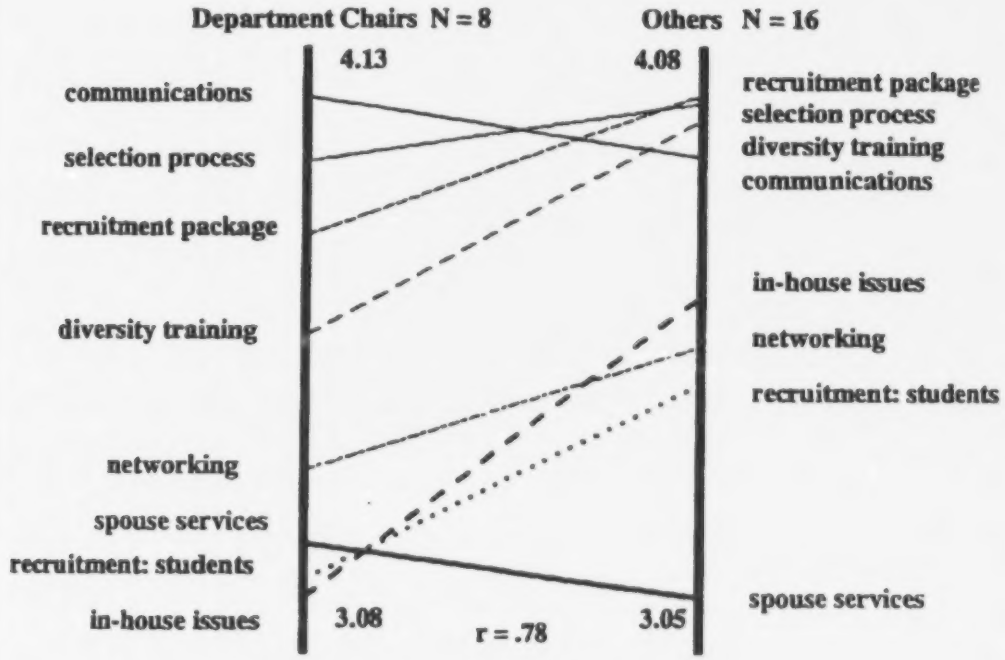

Figure 4. Pattern-matching between department chairs and others.

In the pattern-match (ladder diagram) shown in Figure 4, the two groups being compared are listed at the top of each pole of the ladder. The number of respondents in each group is indicated to the right of the name. The average rating for each of the eight clusters is rank ordered for both of the groups selected. The labels for each of the clusters in shown on either side of the ladder diagram. The software computes a ranking for each cluster and draws a line that connects the same two ranked cluster by clusters from either side of the ladder. Thus, if communications is computed to be the highest department chairs, it is shown at the top of that

side of the ladder. If communications is computed to rank fourth among Others, communications would be shown the fourth from the top on that side of the ladder. A line would then be drawn between the two positions where communications ranked. A line that went straight across the ladder would indicate both groups ranked that cluster in the same relative position. If the group on the left ranked a cluster higher than the group on the right, the line that was computed slopes down much as it does with communications in Figure 4. If the group on the left ranked the cluster lower than the group on the right, the line slopes upward much as it does for the selection process in Figure 4.

The maximum and minimum average ratings for a group are listed at the top and bottom of that group's side of the ladder. Thus Figure 4 shows that department chairs had a maximum average rating of 4.13 (communications) and a minimum of 3.08 (in-house issues). The spread of the text and the justification on the side of the ladder is fixed, but the lines on the ladder indicate the relative spread between clusters. For department chairs in Figure 4, the first four items are spread fairly evenly down the side of the ladder. The last three items are not as far apart indicating less difference between these items. All others, however, gave less of a spread between ratings for the first four items, followed by a sizable gap before three items, followed by an even more sizable gap for the last item, spouse services. There was a high, positive correlation ($r = .78$) between the department chairs and others. This correlation suggested that department chairs did not rate the statements greatly different from Others.

Comparing Those with Diversity Training to Those Not Trained

Diversity training was one of the initiatives developed by the college with the President's encouragement. It was designed to help faculty and staff members become more aware of issues

that underlay diversity and to increase sensitivity to the needs of an increasingly diverse student population. The training consisted of six-three-hour modules. Figure 5 shows the pattern matching between those who had completed diversity training and those who had not. There was a high, positive correlation ($r = .69$) between these two groups, but slightly more modest than between the previous pattern match of department chairs and others. Those who had completed diversity training (DT) rated the cluster diversity training as the most important with a mean rating of 4.22. Those without (DTNOT) rated diversity training as only the fifth most important.

An examination of the angles of the lines suggests that for DT the top two clusters, diversity training and communications, were grouped closely together, whereas the sharp angle downward suggested that for DTNOT, the clusters diversity training and communications, were considered to be relatively less important. Both groups rated spouse services as least important with a mean rating of 3.16 for DT and 3.03 for DTNOT. Both groups showed a wide gap between spouse services and the next lowest cluster, recruitment of students.

Several observations can be made as a result of the visual inspection of the pattern match. As shall be shown on all pattern matches examined for this research, spouse services is consistently rated as the least important. Three of the four statements in the cluster were derived from the original internal planning document that indicated each of the statements should have been implemented by the time of this research. No evidence was found that they had been.

Furthermore, clear differences exist between how those who had completed diversity training viewed the importance of that training compared to those who had not been trained. One speculation was that diversity training may have had a powerful emotional impact that influenced the perceptions of its actual importance to the hiring process.

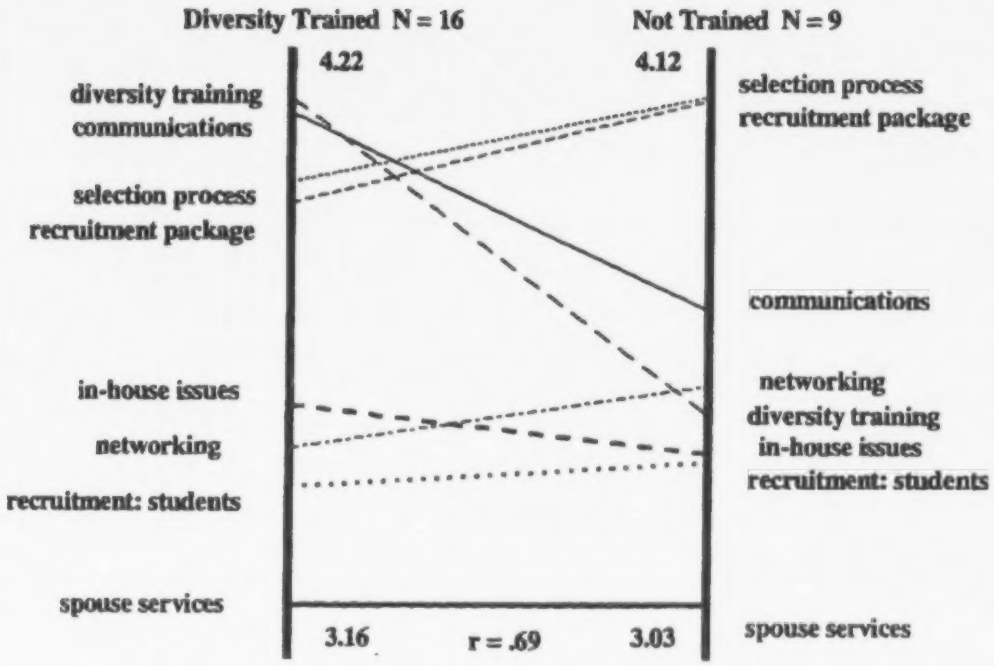

Figure 5. Pattern-matching between those with diversity training and those not trained.

Comparing Those with Affirmative Action Training to Those Not Trained

Figure 6 presents the pattern match between those who had completed a formal training program in the affirmative action process at Green Acres with those who had not completed the training. Affirmative action training was a prerequisite for serving as an Affirmative Action Representative, an individual on the search committee who agreed to assume the responsibility for certifying the process as outlined in the college's Policy and Procedures Manual. This person ensured the college's policies on affirmative action were followed and that they were fairly applied for all of the applicants.

There was a moderate level of correlation (r = .48) between those who had completed affirmative action training (AAT) and those who had not (AATNOT). Three process-oriented clusters, communication, selection process and recruitment package, were rated as relatively more important by AAT than by AATNOT. AATNOT rated the cluster diversity training highest while AAT rated the cluster diversity training six out of eight. One possible interpretation is that AAT were perhaps more process-oriented or attentive to the complexities of the issues involved.

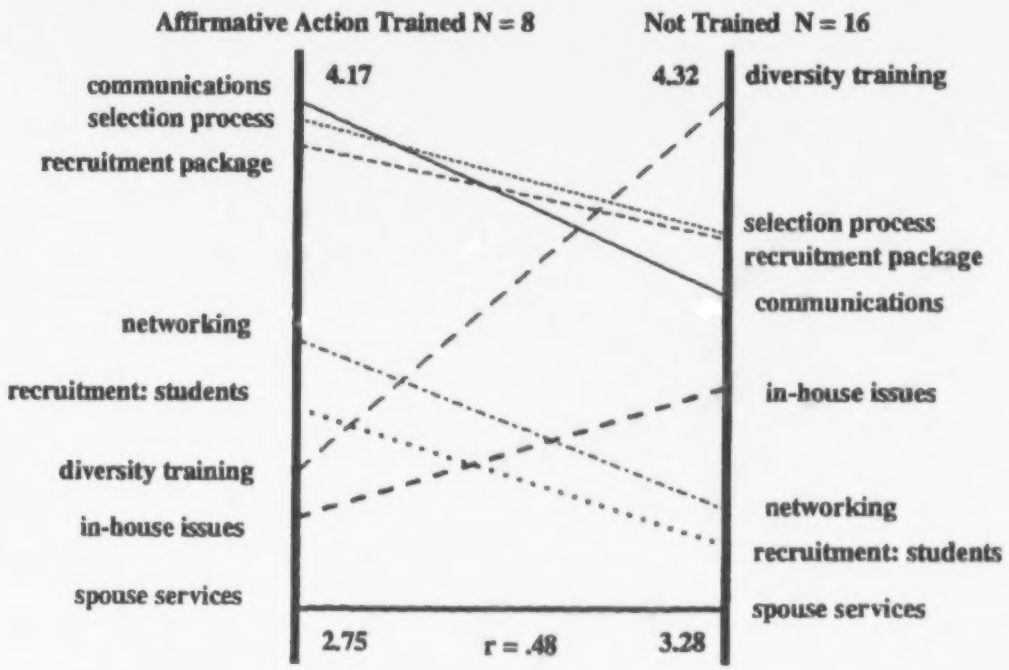

Figure 6. Pattern-matching between affirmative action trained and those not trained.

Only 24 participants are used in this pattern match. The president listed herself as not having completed the affirmative action training at Green Acres College, but she was one of two

who conducted the training session this researcher attended. She also completed her dissertation on the implementation of affirmative action in the 1970s. It is reasonable to assume that her knowledge of affirmative action was significantly greater than others who described themselves as not having been so trained; therefor her response was excluded from this particular analysis.

The ladder diagram revealed other relationships between AAT compared with AATNOT. The highest mean rating for AAT was 4.17 for communications, and the lowest was 2.75 for spouse services. For AATNOT the highest mean was 4.32 for the cluster diversity training. AATNOT also rated spouse services lowest at 3.28. The difference between the two minimums was approximately 0.5, the largest difference between any two maximums or minimums.

Comparing Those with Search Experience to Those Less Experienced

Figure 7 displays the pattern match between those who were experienced and those who were not. Experience with search committees was one of the criteria for selecting participants. Only four of the respondents claimed no experience, but this number included the President of the college who, while not formally serving on search committees, had been actively involved in formulating the policy for the search process. She also interviewed all finalists and either agreed or not to accept the recommendations of all search committees.

Twelve of the participants reported having served on more than six different search committees, defined hereafter as experienced (EXP). After removing the President from the list, twelve were left who had served on six or fewer search committees (EXPNOT).

Having served on more than six searches in the last six years, the more experienced search committee members would be expected to be more attuned to how the search process actually works as compared with those less experienced who might focus on how the process should

work. The correlation between EXP and EXPNOT was (r = .38), a modest correlation, but the lowest of those examined here.

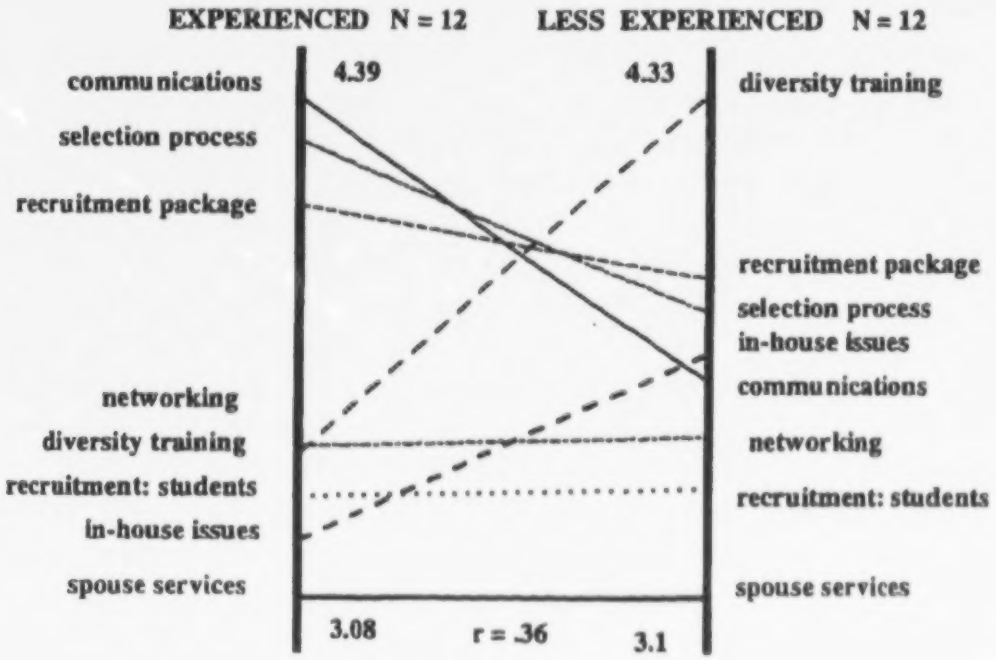

Figure 7. Pattern-matching between those with more experience and those with less.

EXP gave the highest mean rating, 4.39, to the cluster communications. EXPNOT rated diversity training as the most important cluster with a mean rating of 4.33 while EXP rated it 5th (out of eight). Again, both groups rated spouse services as the least important.

The differences between the perceptions of importance for diversity training and communication might suggest that diversity training had less impact (empty ritual) on how the process actually worked, at least from the perspective of those who were experienced. It should

be recalled that those who had been through diversity training considered that training important. It was determined that those who had been through diversity training were not systematically excluded from serving on search committees; indeed, seven of the twelve participants who were experienced had been through diversity training.

Finally, Trochim (1996) suggested that one use of pattern matches was to examine how the ratings of selected individuals (such as a key administrator) compared with specific groups (such as other administrators). Differences revealed by ladder rungs that crossed might suggest differences in priorities that need to be considered. The responses of the President were compared with those of other administrators and also with those of the faculty. The President had a relatively high correlation ($r = .87$) between her ratings and the ratings of the faculty, but only a moderate correlation ($r = .43$) between her ratings and those of other administrators. A similar comparison was made between the Vice President and faculty and the Vice President and other administrators excluding the President. The Vice President had a fairly high correlation ($r = .71$) with other administrators excluding the president, but had a more moderate correlation ($r = .51$) with the faculty. There was a relatively low correlation ($r = .27$) between the President and the Vice President. Other individual comparisons were made, but no important differences emerged.

Follow-up Discussion With Participants

Trochim (1996) indicated that the fifth step in the concept mapping process is to involve the participants in interpreting the final maps. Participants had been encouraged to provide preliminary interpretations at each step in the process. Due to very busy schedules it was not possible to find common meeting times during the semester for all of the participants to meet as a group and share responses to the maps. However, Trochim (1989b, 1996) and Grayson (1992a,

1992b) indicated that the participants might benefit from participating in such a meeting since it would allow participants the opportunity to share in reviewing the results as part of the incentive for them to participate. All participants were invited to a meeting during a period of time when classes at the college were not in session. A packet containing all the various maps, along with a brief explanation of the process, was provided each participant. Participants were encouraged to provide an e-mail response if they were unable to attend the scheduled meeting. Nine participants were present for the entire ninety-minute meeting. Other participants provided additional feedback by way of e-mail and informal contact.

The participants described the points on the point map as falling into two regions. One region was labeled internal strategies, the other external strategies. Figure 8 shows how the participants divided the regions on the point map. It was observed that a number of the points on the point map fell in close proximity to an imaginary line that cut across both internal and external regions. One idea discussed was that these points, both internal and external, represented specific process strategies, whereas points that fell further away (12, 21, 29, and 46 in the upper region and 6, 11, and 30 in the lower region) from the imaginary line represented strategies that modified the process strategies.

In the upper region, statements 21 and 29 comprised the cluster named diversity training. Statement 12 dealt with the President articulating the goals for diversity. In the lower region, statements 6 and 11 dealt with spouse programs and statement 30 emphasized the nearness of a university. Statement 46 dealt with identification of change agents among faculty and staff. Point 48 was indicated as being on the line of demarcation between internal and external. Statement 48, which referred to the need for the candidate's visit to be a pleasurable one,

represented both internal and external concerns.

The internal leverage points in the upper region -- starting from the outside and moving in -- were 29, 21, 46, and 12. Statement 29 referred to educating the Board of Trustees on the importance of a more diverse faculty. Statement 21 dealt with enhancing diversity training programs for current faculty and staff. Statement 46 referred to the identification of change agents for the purpose of providing them with additional training in such areas as leadership.

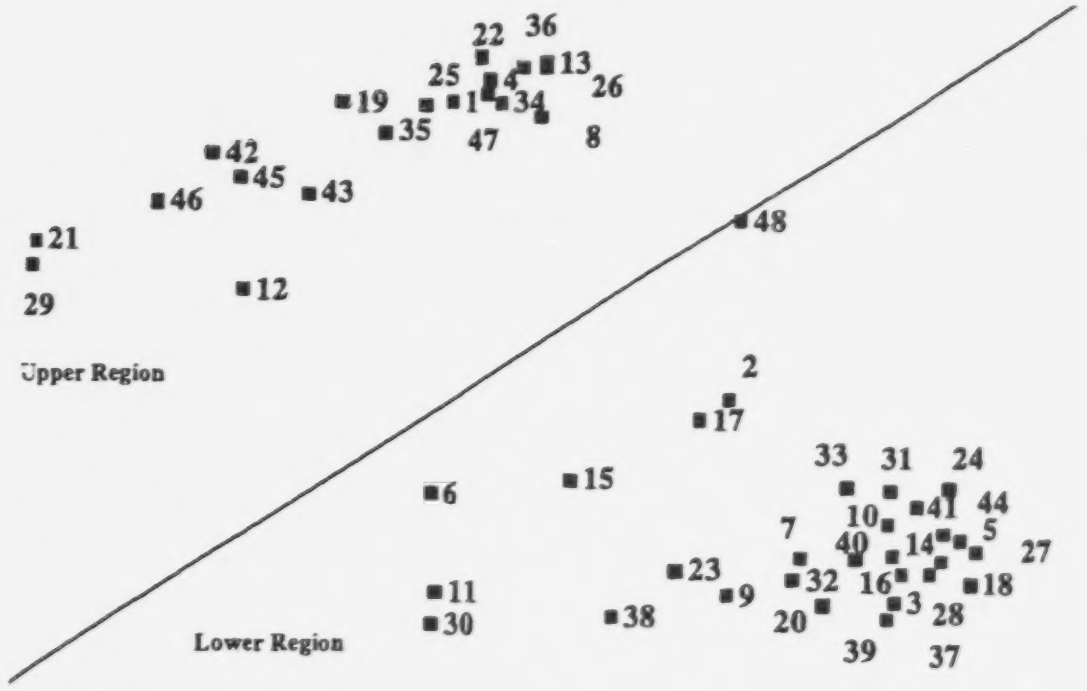

Figure 8. Point map showing regions.

Statement 12 dealt with having the President clearly articulate the goal of hiring a more diverse faculty. None of the statements could be said to directly deal with the hiring process itself, but

rather reflected strategies that would change the institution's understanding of the meaning and importance of diversity. All of the statements, except 46 which referred to change agents, were considered to be Extremely Important.

The external leverage points in the lower region -- starting from the outside and moving in -- were 30, 11, 6, and 38. Statement 30 referred to the location of the college with regard to the a research-oriented university. Statements 6 and 11 dealt with a joint spouse program. Statement 38 referred to recruitment materials that were to feature the college as a progressive and premier community college and was rated 4.36 or Extremely Important.

Following the meeting several participants speculated on why the spouse services were not considered important and, indeed, were not implemented. One department chair suggested that services for spouses were not part of the community college culture. Another department chair maintained that it was not only inappropriate, but perhaps even illegal to consider the spouse in the hiring process. This chair went on to suggest that spouse services were better handled during the negotiation process after an offer had been made. A faculty member suggested that it was simply too costly to bring a spouse to the college during the search and the administration was not enthusiastic about spending money.

Summary of the Findings

The participants rated and sorted 48 statements reflecting strategies for increasing the diversity among full-time faculty in the future. The statements were derived from in-depth interviews and an internal planning document. The relationships between statements when placed in a two-dimensional representation revealed two major regions, later named internal and external strategies by the participants. Internal strategies primarily focused on the search committee while

the external statements focused primarily on recruitment.

Each of the statements was also rated by participants on a five-point Likert-type scale with 1 equal to Not Important and 5 equal to Extremely Important. The statement judged most important was the statement on making the candidate's visit pleasurable. No statements were judged to be Somewhat or Not Important.

The statements were grouped into eight clusters reflecting underlying domains or constructs. Three of these clusters, selection process, recruitment package, and communications were considered to be Very or Extremely Important. The lowest-rated cluster, spouse services, was rated Important. Follow-up discussion suggested these strategies were possibly costly and were not considered to be part of the community college culture.

In follow-up discussions the participants identified a "central core" or group of statements that were considered important and directly related to the hiring process. They also identified seven statements that seemed to be outside the process, rather than being part of the process. These statements were described as strategies to provide leverage on the core processes to modify or alter the effects of the core processes. If it is true that the twin criteria of preparation and fit act to restrict minority faculty hiring, then the internal leverage statements dealing with diversity training (statement 21), top administrative support for diversity goals (statements 12 and 29), and identification of change agents (statement 46) might act to counter those restrictions. Likewise, if labor market effects such as mobility issues involved with spouse effects act to restrict or limit the pool of available minority applicants, then the external leverage statements 6, 11, and 30 might act to limit those negative effects.

The ratings of the clusters of various groups were compared to explore possible

relationships suggested by some of the literature. Stassen (1992, 1995) suggested that changes by administration perceived as threats to traditional prerogatives might be met with resistance. Department chairs had historically had almost exclusive hiring authority prior to the implementation of the current process. A comparison was made between ratings by department chairs and those who were not, revealing a high positive correlation ($r = .78$) between the two groups. The comparison between department chairs and others was the only one of the four where spouse services were not rated the lowest of both groups; department chairs rated in-house issues lowest. It is possible that one statement in the cluster, number 45, "Make department chairs responsible for increasing diversity among their full- and part-time staff," was rated very low by the department chairs, thus bringing the entire cluster down.

Newcombe (1980) argues that top administrators must create a positive political climate for affirmative action programs to be effective. One of the initiatives implemented by the current president for the purpose of affecting the political climate was diversity training. On the other hand, Meyer (1986) suggested that one method of appearing to change without actually changing was to create ritual structures. The interview data suggested that some perceived diversity training to be an empty ritual. All of the pattern matches, except the one between department chairs and others, showed differences regarding the importance of the cluster called diversity training. Those who had completed diversity training rated the cluster diversity training as the most important, whereas the group who had completed affirmative action training and the group with more experience both rated the diversity training cluster toward the lower part of the ladder. This disparity suggests, but certainly does not prove, that some participants perceived diversity training to be an empty ritual.

According to Hill (1987), an impediment to the implementation of affirmative action was a lack of knowledge of the process. One initiative reported in the case study was to train faculty and staff in affirmative action and have them serve as Affirmative Action Representatives on all search committees. It was assumed that those who had been through the training would have greater knowledge of the search process compared with those who had not. Those who had completed affirmative action training rated the process-oriented clusters of communications, selection process, and recruitment package clearly above the other five clusters. Similar findings were shown in the pattern match between those with more experience and those with less. In both cases it is possible that a deeper familiarity with how the process should work and how it does work sensitizes the participants to the essentials of the process. In advertising terms, they may be less inclined to buy the sizzle in lieu of the steak.

When individual responses were compared with those of groups, important differences emerged between possible constituencies of the President and the Vice President. The President had a higher correlation with the responses of faculty than she did with other administrators. The Vice President, on the other hand, had a higher correlation with administrators (other than the President) than with faculty. One possible explanation for this is most administrators (other than the President) report directly to the Vice President, thus a similarity of views may have evolved from this nearby working relationship. There was a more modest correlation ($r = .39$) between the President and the Vice President.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The grand tour research question that was addressed by this study was, "How can a community college hire a more diverse full-time faculty?" This question was brought about by a recognition that community colleges are faced with a rapidly changing environment. Many faculty hired in the 1960s and 1970s are now reaching retirement age (Cohen & Brawer, 1989). Community colleges are also being faced with a student population increasing in diversity (Cvanacara, 1995). At the same time as community colleges are attempting to recruit qualified and more diverse replacements, external support for hiring a more diverse faculty in the form of affirmative action is being challenged both in the courts and in the voting booth.

Research on how to successfully address under representation and diversity among community college faculty has taken four broad and overlapping approaches: externally mandated guidelines (such as affirmative action), administrative leadership, faculty involvement in search committees, and market forces. Research on externally mandated guidelines suggested that support for affirmative action (Kelsey, 1988) and affirmative action itself can influence the hiring of a more diverse faculty (Scollay et al., 1989). Experimental research shows students in controlled research settings hold negative attitudes toward affirmative action (Summers, 1995; Doverspike & Arthur, 1995; Major, Feinstein, & Crocker, 1994; and Dietz-Uhler & Murrell, 1993), although Turner and Pratkanis (1994a) warned experimental research on affirmative action was often conducted using assumptions on implementation vastly different from how affirmative action is actually implemented. Recent Supreme Court decisions have suggested the Court is moving away from support for affirmative action (Cvanacara, 1995).

Research on the role of administrative leadership in implementing programs to alter the inequities of past hiring policies has suggested that senior-level administrative support was essential for effective implementation of affirmative action (Newcombe, 1980; Newcombe & Conrad, 1981; Actherson & Conyers, 1989; and Freidman, 1994). However, Stassen (1992, 1995) pointed out the limits on senior administration's power to change, particularly where traditional prerogatives such as faculty selection are concerned.

Research on community college faculty selection has stressed the importance of faculty involvement (Bromert, 1984; Kaplowitz, 1988; Watts, 1993; and Norton & Hundley, 1995), yet Schneider (1987) has argued that faculty search committees tend to replicate themselves. Given the fact that community college faculty are predominately white (Cvanacara, 1995), such replication would result in less rather than more diversity.

Little is known about the role market forces play in community colleges. Most research on the academic marketplace has focused on four-year institutions. Caplow and McGee (1958), Burke (1988), and Finnegan (1993) have suggested that a queing effect in higher education creates a hierarchy where the best and brightest new faculty are attracted to the more prestigious institutions, although Finnegan found that there may be a market segmentation such that queing is more important within a given segment, such as community colleges, than between segments. Community colleges, particularly the less prestigious ones, may have difficulty attracting qualified minorities. One response to the low numbers of minorities in faculty applicant pools has been to develop "grow your own" faculty programs (Andrews & Marzano, 1990-1991; and Parson, 1992). Some community colleges have adopted such plans, but there has been little research on their implemention or effectiveness.

The purpose of this study was to better understand how one community college carried out the faculty hiring process and to discover what strategies were being considered to hire a more diverse full-time faculty in the future. An in-depth exploratory case study using mixed methodologies was undertaken at one midwestern community college thought to be an example of a college that had begun to address these issues. The study was conducted in two phases. Phase one involved document review and in-depth interviews with twenty "elite" participants thought to have experience with the faculty hiring process -- both as it currently exists as well as a historical perspective on past practices. Phase two focused on how twenty-five faculty and staff conceptualized a series of statements or strategies derived from the first phase of the study. The statements were an attempt to identify strategies the college was using or could use in the future in the effort to hire a more diverse full-time faculty. The conceptualization process was facilitated by the software package, The Concept System (Trochim, 1996a).

The college, called Green Acres Community College for the purpose of this study, had a black female president who was a recognized national leader and had taken a public position strongly supporting diversity and multiculturalism. The college had won numerous awards in the areas of diversity and planning. The college had also begun a number of initiatives to directly address the shortage of minority faculty including a nationally advertised one-year internship for minority faculty without previous teaching experience, diversity training for faculty and staff, and the use of specially trained faculty and staff who fulfilled the role of affirmative action representative on all faculty search committees.

Summary of Findings and Conclusions

The findings can be described in four general parts: how past practices evolved, how

current practices were stated, how current practices were experienced, and how strategies for the future were conceptualized. Each of these parts will be considered in turn.

Past Practices

Early hiring practices of the college were marked by "compliance" to regulations. Documents from the college archive indicated that the college complied with affirmative action guidelines, but did little more than was formally required by law with the effect that time lines for implementation of affirmative action paralleled federal legislative, executive, and judicial decisions. Documents revealed a pattern of paying women faculty less than men. A 1975 internal report indicated that only "voluntary submission" of information and reports was sought by the state community college coordinating agency. This same 1975 internal report defined an acceptable level of female and minority employment in terms of overall college employment measured against district wide civilian work force without regard to female and minority student or faculty numbers. Faculty and staff hired during previous administrations consistently described an environment where affirmative action was compliance.

Past hiring decisions were made by department chairs and/or senior administrators. Interviewees reported that department chairs had nearly exclusive control over specific hiring decisions. No documentation was found that revealed what the official hiring procedures had been in the past. In some cases there was input in the selection process by the faculty, but there were several reported cases of new faculty being hired over the objections of the faculty on the committees. Such cases were not considered to be unusual. By 1975 an Affirmative Action Office had been established at the college. The Affirmative Action Officer was also the Director of Personnel. Documents from what was then known as the Office of Personnel revealed that

various forms used by the college were potentially open to abuse. Application forms readily revealed applicant data unrelated to job requirements. While the college maintained statements in its public documents professing to be an affirmative action/equal opportunity employer, documentation did not demonstrate that preliminary steps were taken to implement the letter or the spirit of the law (i.e., ensuring widespread distribution of position announcements). When the founding president retired, his replacement attempted to make changes in hiring practices, but his confrontational style mitigated against his efforts having little lasting effect. One participant in this study described these attempts as "diversity in your face."

Current Practices as Stated

The current faculty hiring process reflected more participation by faculty at all stages of the process. The current process specifically involved faculty on search committees; although the exact number of faculty on a particular committee varied by academic department. At least one department, English, reportedly utilized the entire department sitting as a committee of the whole. The department chair sometimes served as committee chair, sometimes not. Department chairs in the college reported being largely satisfied with faculty participation in the current hiring process. One advantage reported by faculty and department chairs was the belief that by increasing faculty participation, the faculty were more accepting and supportive of new hires, thereby increasing the likelihood of retaining the newer faculty members regardless of their gender or racial identity. One reported disadvantage was the large amount of time involved in the faculty search process.

Present policies and procedures for faculty hiring are clearly stated and were easily accessed though the college's homepage on the worldwide web. The homepage presents the current full-time faculty hiring process consisting of an eighteen-step process, beginning when a

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vacancy is declared and ending with acceptance of a contract. As a result of its easy accessibility, the model is widely known across the campus as well as to any prospective applicants who may wish to apply for a position at the college. The model for the search process that the college followed was similar to other well-known models (Bromert, 1984; Kaplowitz, 1988; Watts, 1993; and Lawhorn & Ennis, 1995), showing the college was building on previously tested approaches.

A cornerstone of the affirmative action process seemed to be wider distribution of advertisements for available positions than had existed in the past under previous administrations. The current Office of Human Resources was assigned the responsibility for distributing position announcements to various networks including The Chronicle of Higher Education and minority associations affiliated with the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC). However, no consistent steps were taken to announce position vacancies to the 117 historically black colleges and universities prior to this study. No documentation was available to demonstrate that position announcements were actually distributed except for advertisements in The Chronicle of Higher Education. The current application form included an opportunity for the applicant to respond as to where she or he had first heard of the position vacancy. No mechanism had been put into place to track data or to determine the effectiveness of distribution. The Office of Human Resources was charged with monitoring and tracking the applicant flow, but there was no documentation showing the applicant flow making it nearly impossible to determine the numbers and percentages of women and minority applicants for recently filled positions.

One innovative procedure was to train faculty and staff volunteers to be responsible for enforcing the affirmative action policies of the college. In previous administrations this function was performed by an administrator assigned to that position. In one case there was one individual

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assigned specifically to the task of enforcing affirmative action procedures and who reported directly to the college president. In most other cases these duties were assigned as additional responsibilities usually located in the Office of the Director of Human resources. Currently faculty and staff volunteers were trained to be affirmative action representatives responsible for determining if the number of minority applicants was representative of and appropriate for the minority "pool" on a case by case basis. However, no standards were available to guide those decisions.

Despite policy and procedural changes to the hiring process and the highly visible support of the current President for hiring a more diverse faculty, the actual number of minority full-time, tenure-track faculty members had not changed in the six years the president had been in office. The number of minority full-time faculty members in 1991 was nine (5.8%) exactly the same as in 1995, the last full year complete data were available. Female full-time faculty showed slight losses down from 75 (48%) in 1991 to 73 (47%) in 1995. Recent changes in non-tenure-track (short-term) full-time faculty may not extend beyond the current year.

Current Practices as Experienced.

If changes in policies and procedures resulted in no changes in the faculty demographics, an important question that emerged was "What were the reasons for the lack of change in minority faculty hiring?" Researchers have identified various reasons why the numbers of minority faculty have failed to increase. The reasons may include some combination of the following: (a) negative attitudes towards affirmative action (see for example Summers, 1993); (b) resistance to change (Stassen, 1992, 1995); (c) white faculty replicating themselves through the faculty hiring process (Schneider, 1987); (d) unknown effects of labor market forces such as

queing (Finnegan, 1993); (e) mixed messages being sent or received about the importance of hiring a more diverse faculty (Friedman, 1994). In the case of Green Acres College some of the reasons identified above may have contributed to the lack of change in faculty gender and ethnic ratios. Yet, additional evidence revealed other factors not part of the formal process operating outside or below the surface. Two factors, not part of the formal faculty hiring process, emerged from the analysis of the in-depth interview data, namely the factors of preparation (experience) and fit.

A number of the faculty and many of the administrators believed prior teaching experience was an important criterion for choosing between potential applicants. The President and Vice President of the college expressed contrasting views on the importance of prior teaching experience. The President recalled the days when few of the current faculty at the college had had prior teaching experience. The Vice President (who, as chief academic officer for the college, was responsible for maintaining the quality of instruction) charged faculty search committees with looking for experienced teachers. Experience at Green Acres typically meant prior experience teaching in the community college setting. It should also be pointed out that these two senior administrators have, themselves, vastly different levels of teaching experience: the President has only limited classroom teaching experience, while the Vice President was on the mathematics faculty for over 25 years before going into administration.

Given that there are relatively few minorities currently teaching in community colleges (Cvanacara, 1995), the requirement of prior experience teaching at a community college may effectively eliminate many minorities, narrowing the pool from which community colleges can draw upon. At Green Acres there was no collegewide agreement on the importance of experience

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or how it was measured. Every department was free to determine the weight of prior community college experience in whatever way it chose.

A second factor was operating to help explain why a community college with only a small percentage of minority faculty did not increase that percentage. The factor related to how well an applicant was perceived to "fit" into the organization. Preparation seemed to be the factor that determined if an applicant made it to the interview stage of the process. Fit seemed to be the factor that determined who was hired. There was a reported perception that people from backgrounds vastly different from the students (as well as the current faculty) might not be able to connect and others who were interviewed denied that fit was a factor in the decision. However, most agreed that fit was a factor. It is probable that a more accurate description of the adverse effect of fit lies buried in the unconscious norms of the institution. Schneider (1987) predicted that search committees might replicate themselves; fit is one way in which this replication takes place. On one level, fit and diversity are mutually exclusive terms. If the goal is diversity (i.e., being different) then the criteria of not fitting in (i.e., being different) is directly at odds with the goal. It was obvious from the interviews that fit was of much greater concern than diversity to many of those interviewed, which suggests incomplete acceptance of some of the diversity concepts advocated by the President.

Most Green Acres personnel interviewed did not believe the loss of affirmative action would alter the institution's faculty hiring process. Most of the more important elements of affirmative action such as an open process and wide distribution of vacancy announcements have already been adopted by the college. Most of the faculty and staff who were interviewed had been recently served on a faculty search and were reportedly highly supportive of the process

indicating that affirmative action had been accepted. There was no evidence to indicate anyone at the college was interested in returning to the hiring processes used in the past (pre-affirmative action). If there were any group that might have lost power in the change of process it would have been department chairs. In the past department chairs had almost exclusive authority over faculty hiring. Stassen (1992, 1995) predicted that individuals threatened with a loss of perceived prerogatives might resist changes in the process. No evidence surfaced suggesting the loss of faculty hiring prerogatives by department chairs had resulted in resistance to affirmative action as Stassen predicted. Although the twin issues of preparation and fit discussed in the preceding paragraphs supported the possibility that white faculty may be replicating themselves through serving on faculty search committees.

A lack of data on labor market effects in community colleges made it difficult to draw conclusions regarding such effects at Green Acres College. Little is known about how women and minorities interested in becoming community college faculty make those decisions. It is difficult to imagine the issues being faced by a minority family considering moving to a small, rural, mainly all-white community or how the community college in that town could effectively entice them to make the move. Other, different problems may be faced by community colleges living in the shadow of nearby major universities. Hill (1987) suggested that search committees often use the lack of minorities in the pool as an excuse for not hiring more minorities. The extent to which this was an excuse or a real problem was difficult to determine. Subtle differences in wording suggested that some felt the problem might be real and that there often was not an adequate minority pool. Others seemed to believe that the pool existed, but was not fully utilized. In either case, Andrews and Marzano (1990-91) proposed one solution to the problem of low

numbers of minorities in the pool of applicants could be to develop minority talent through "grow your own" programs. Green Acres had initiated such a program called The Diversity 2000 Internship. The initiative involved a one-year internship for an underrepresented faculty member who had no previous teaching experience, but who was assigned a faculty mentor. Underrepresented in this case referred to gender and racial categories with respect to the general population (eg., the lack of men in the nursing faculty). The initiative had been in effect for two years. In the first year, only one intern was hired; in the second year, three interns were hired in three different departments. Although not a major focus of this study, some interns reported concerns about the short-term nature of the internship, suggesting the effectiveness of the initiative may be open to question.

Strategies for the Future

Future strategies for hiring a more diverse full-time faculty at Green Acres College are external and internal in focus. Participants grouped or clustered 48 statements into two distinct regions, later determined by the participants to represent internal and external strategies. The strategies identified as internal were composed of statements that related largely to the search committee processes. The statements identified as external were primarily related to strategies for recruitment. The majority of the statements, both internal and external, were tightly clustered around what was later identified by the participants as hiring processes.

There was a strong consensus among the participants about the importance of having both internal and external strategies. The cluster analysis allowed the 48 statements to be grouped logically into different numbers of clusters. Eight clusters were agreed upon by the participants as being a reasonable way of organizing the data. Three of the clusters comprised the region

identified as internal: the selection process, in-house issues, and diversity training. The other five clusters were in the external region. They were communications, recruitment of students, networking, recruitment package, and spouse services.

The three most important clusters to the hiring of a more diverse full-time faculty were selection process, recruitment package, and communications. The clusters were rated as follows using a five-point scale of importance: selection process (4.07), recruitment package (4.04), and communication (3.99). All three clusters were rated at a level of Extremely Important. The cluster identified as least important was spouse services (3.11), showing this cluster to be Important. No clusters or individual statements were judged to be Not Important.

Pattern-matches (ladder diagrams) were created to compare how two different groups rated the statements in the eight clusters. A Pearson correlation coefficient (r) was generated to aid in the analysis of the pattern matches. The phase one interview data and a review of the literature suggested that four comparisons be explored to determine if differences existed between pairs of groups. The four groups were: (a) department chairs and others; (b) those who had completed diversity training and those who did not; (c) those who had completed affirmative action training and those who had not; and (d) those who had served on more than six searches in the last six years and those who had served on fewer than six searches. The correlation coefficient indicated a modest or strong relationship between the group comparisons in all four cases. Suggesting ds and Others did not differ greatly on how they rated the importance of the eight clusters. Similarly, those who had completed diversity training and those

who had not, Those who had complete affirmative action training and those who had not, and

those with search experience and those less experienced showed similar patterns of responses.

In summary, in answer to the question "How can a community college hire a more diverse faculty?" one community college thought to be a model responded by moving from a state of compliance to affirmative action to a more aggressive implementation of policies and procedures designed for just that purpose. Faculty have begun to take a larger role in the hiring process, but their involvement in faculty searches may have produced mixed results. To the extent that women and minorities were hired, the faculty who helped hire them may prove be more supportive of diversity thereby aiding to the overall retention of women and minority faculty. On the other hand, the twin, often unexamined, factors of preparation and "fit" may have contributed to faculty replicating themselves through the search process as evidenced by the lack of change in minority representation in the overall faculty composition. On the other hand, the hiring process itself was opened up by utilizing broad advertisements for announcement of vacancies. This, perhaps accounted for the wide spread belief at the college that the loss of affirmative action would not likely alter the hiring process. There was a general belief among those studied that all of the strategies for hiring a more diverse faculty were important.

Implications for Policy and Practice

While changes in community college policies and procedures may be necessary in order to hire a more diverse full-time faculty, little is known about which specific strategies are effective over both the short- and long-term. Various policies and procedures designed to hire a more diverse faculty were identified. Interview data suggested these changes were almost universally attributed to the current president. A number of other strategies designed to influence the campus climate in favor of more diversity such as diversity training and utilization of faculty and staff as

Affirmative Action representatives were implemented. The college's current catalog and Policy and Procedures Manual clearly identified diversity as a high priority for the college. Yet, despite the numerous processes in place, no changes in the racial/ethnic ratio of full-time faculty occurred in the last six years. Only slight changes were evident in the full-time gender ratio, and these changes were towards fewer female full-time faculty. Several reasons for the lack of change are possible. The most likely reasons seem to be related to the two criteria of preparation and fit. However, this study was limited to the experience of one community college and many of the changes were relatively new. The time frame of six years may be too short to measure the impact of the changes that have been implemented.

Initially, the college adopted a posture of compliance towards hiring a more diverse full-time faculty, but recent activities showed more aggressive actions were being taken. Consistent with Newcombe's (1980) theory of mandated academic change, the college moved from policy formation to trial and transition and was currently in what might be referred to as the policy execution stage (Newcombe, 1980, p. 211). Evidence for this transition was found in interview data along with the concept mapping ratings of strategies considered important for hiring a more diverse full-time faculty. Five of the top ten statements (out of 48) based on mean ratings dealt with the need to provide additional training for search committee members. Given that these statements were judged important by administrators and several faculty knowledgeable of the search process, it is apparent that a commitment to changing the hiring process had spread beyond the senior administrative level. However, some of those interviewed expressed reservations about the extent to which these changes had been adopted by the entire college faculty and staff. Nevertheless, the fact that there was a call for increased training of faculty suggested the college

as a whole may be moving towards an increased commitment to hiring a more diverse full-time faculty. This perception of commitment may explain why there was a belief that changes in externally mandated affirmative action would not impact on local hiring practices.

The college was also continuing to implement additional training programs such as diversity training designed to affect beliefs and attitudes of individual faculty and staff members. Some of those interviewed felt it was essential to change the institutional norms regarding such factors as preparation and fit, and it was a belief held by some that diversity training was an effective method for bringing about such changes. Others viewed diversity training as an empty ritual meaning that individual and institutional efforts were being diverted from more essential activities. More study is needed to determine how effective future efforts of Green Acres are in bringing about changes in the beliefs and attitudes of the faculty and staff, particularly as they relate to hiring a more diverse full-time faculty.

There appears to be an implicit assumption that a pool of minority applicants exists when, indeed, it may not. At present insufficient evidence exists to address this issue with respect to Green Acres College. It was informative that nearly everyone rated recruitment to be important. Four of the top ten (out of 48) most important strategies based on mean averages dealt with the need for more effective recruitment tools. Such ratings would seem to imply a belief that a minority pool existed somewhere. In the event that an adequate pool of minority applicants did not exist, the college was continuing to implement and expand a "grow your own" minority internship program. The current program was in what Newcombe (1980) would call the "trial phase" (p. 211). The fact that little was known about the effectiveness of such programs suggests the need for additional research on such programs.

Little is known about the effects of the academic marketplace on community colleges. There is some evidence to suggest that "queing" may be perceived to operate within the community college hiring market segment. It is difficult to determine how, or if, such market segmentation as Finnegan (1993) described actually effects community colleges. The fact that the third most important strategy (out of 48) dealt with presenting the college as a premier community college seems to suggest that there was a belief that other community colleges may not be of similar quality, hence potential applicants should consider being part of this particular community college faculty. On the other hand, there seemed to be some ambivalence about associating too closely with a highly prestigious research-oriented university located in the same community (ranked 36 out of 48). Other strategies designed to attract faculty members with two-income households such as spouse support services were ranked near the bottom (44 and 46 out of 48) in the order of importance.

Concept mapping is an effective tool for understanding how groups of individuals think about the hiring process. Concept mapping is an effective tool for developing a "bottom-up" approach where participants are actively involved in the conceptualization process and the development of meaning about that process. It is useful in identification of consensus among various stakeholder groups. It would appear that it could also be useful for developing a way of understanding how an organization changes over time with respect to the conceptualization of the hiring process. Such an analysis should prove to be a useful tool in evaluation.

Recommendations for Further Research

One of the inherent limitations of an in-depth case study is the difficulty of generalizing findings and conclusions in contexts that differ from the one studied. This study used a small,

purposively chosen sample of participants thought to be knowledgeable about the search process. In order that more generalizable findings could be made, it is necessary to study a more representative sample of community college administrators and faculty. To accomplish this, a survey instrument could be developed to explore how community colleges can hire a more diverse full-time faculty. The instrument could be based on the 48 strategies explored in this research, but it would be necessary to modify the strategies to make them less context specific.

One phase of such survey research could focus on perceptions of potential faculty search committee members. The significance of such findings would be to better inform administrators and those interested in hiring a more diverse faculty about the possible composition of search committees. Based on the findings of the review of literature and this case study four null hypotheses could be advanced and tested:

1. There are no significant differences in the ratings of the 48 strategies between men as compared to the ratings of women.

2. There are no significant differences in the ratings between whites as compared to the ratings of minorities.

3. There are no significant differences in ratings between potential search committee members trained in affirmative action as compared to the ratings of those not trained in affirmative action.

4. There are no significant differences in ratings between potential search committee members with extensive previous experience in faculty searches as compared to the ratings of those with less experience.

An additional area of research could use an alternative modification of the 48 identified strategies, since little is known about how extensively these strategies have been implemented at other community colleges. This research study could focus on perceptions of importance and stages of implementation of each of the 48 strategies. Participants in this study could be a

representative sample of individuals most likely to be aware of what strategies were being considered or were already being employed by a particular community college, or a sample of community colleges within a state or the nation. The survey instrument could be modified to rate the strategies on a four-stage implementation model such as the following:

1. Not being considered,
2. Planned, but not implemented,
3. Initial stage of implementation, but not institutionalized, and
4. Advanced stage of implementation (institutionalized).

Another study that should be done is complete follow-up research on Green Acres College. The sample that was used was purposively drawn. A more complete picture of how the hiring practices are actually experienced would include data from a more representative sample of the faculty and staff at Green Acres. The four null hypotheses discussed above should be used to survey a representative group of administrators, faculty, and staff at Green Acres College.

A second, related study, would look at Green Acres over a longer period of time to determine what happens in the next five to ten years. Concept mapping would be very useful for this research by providing a time series for analysis. By examining how the hiring process changes over time, some sense of the order of the implementation of the various strategies would inform researchers and policy makers about the order in which steps need to be taken.

While Green Acres College is perhaps unique in some respects it is nevertheless similar other community colleges in the midwest in many other aspects. However, the nature of any case study limits its generalizability. It is important to replicate this study at other community colleges where different approaches to hiring a more diverse full-time faculty have been taken.

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APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Legend for abbreviations used in the following matrix:

Adm	Administrative contract.
FF	Full-time faculty contract (teaching faculty and nonteaching faculty such as librarians and counselors)
SP	Supportive Professional contract (nonadministrative position such as computer programmer or grant writer)
Chair	Department chair or equivalent position for nonteaching faculty supervisor
Y	Yes
N	No
F	Female
M	Male
W	White
A	Asian
Search exp.	Served on more than six faculty searches in the last six years?
Div. Trained	Completed Diversity Training?
A.A. Trained	Completed Training in Affirmative Action and qualified to act as Affirmative Action Representative for a search committee?

Table A1

Matrix of Demographic Data

Data Group	Job Title			Dept. Chair		Gender		Race			Search Exp.		Div. Trained		A.A. Trained	
	Adm	FF	SP	Y	N	F	M	W	B	A	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N
Job Title																
Adm	10	•	•	8	2	5	5	8	1	1	6	4	7	3	4	6
FF	•	14	•	0	14	6	8	12	3	0	5	9	9	5	3	11
SP	•	•	2	0	2	2	0	2	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1
Chair																
Y	8	0	0	8	•	3	5	8	0	0	5	3	6	2	2	6
N	2	14	2	•	18	10	8	13	4	1	6	12	11	7	6	12
Gender																
F	5	6	2	3	10	13	•	9	3	1	5	8	9	4	3	10
M	5	8	0	5	8	•	13	12	1	0	7	6	8	5	5	8

(table continues)

Table A1 (continues)

Data Group	Job Title			Dept. Chair		Gender		Race			Search Exp.		Div. Trained		A.A. Trained	
	Adm	FF	SP	Y	N	F	M	W	B	A	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N
Race																
W	8	11	2	8	13	9	12	21	*	*	10	11	13	8	5	16
B	1	3	0	0	4	3	1	*	4	*	1	3	3	1	2	2
A	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	*	*	1	1	0	1	0	1	0
Search Exp.																
Y	6	5	1	6	6	5	7	10	1	1	12	*	8	4	6	6
N	4	9	1	2	12	8	6	11	3	0	*	14	9	5	2	12
Div. Trained																
Y	7	9	1	6	11	9	8	13	3	1	8	9	17	*	5	12
N	3	5	1	2	7	4	5	8	1	0	4	5	*	9	3	6
A. A. Trained																
Y	4	3	1	2	6	3	5	5	2	1	6	2	5	3	8	*
N	6	11	1	7	11	10	8	16	2	0	6	12	12	6	*	18

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Ice Breaker: Describe your impressions of Parkland's hiring process when you were first hired.

1. Describe the current full-time faculty selection process from your perspective.
2. Has this process changed over the years? If so, how?
3. What influence do you think Affirmative Action has had on the development of the current faculty selection process?
4. What are the strengths and weaknesses of the current process?
5. President Harris has described the goal of the process as being to build a more diverse faculty. What does that mean to you?
6. To what extent do you believe that Affirmative Action has influenced the goals?
7. If the goal is to build a more diverse faculty what do we have to do to get there?
8. Were there any specific searches in the near past that stick out in your mind? Describe.
9. Has there ever been any legal difficulties with the hiring process to the best of your recollection?
10. What can be done to improve the search process?
11. Do you have any other thoughts about the search process past, present or future?
12. If Affirmative Action "goes away", how will that change how the College selects full-time faculty?

APPENDIX C

SAMPLE LETTER TO PARTICIPANTS

<date>

TO: <participant name>
FROM: George H. Johnston
SUBJECT: Dissertation Research

As part of the research for my doctoral dissertation, I am studying the faculty selection process at Green Acres Community College. In order to better understand this process I am seeking to answer the broad question: "If the College wants to develop a more diverse faculty, what will take to get it there?"

I am asking for your assistance in this research. One important part of the data gathering will involve in-depth interviews (tape recorded). These should each take less than an hour. Of course it is difficult to guarantee complete anonymity in an interview situation, but I will do everything possible to insure anonymity. I will give you an opportunity to review and revise the transcription of your interview.

Please complete and return the attached form to George Johnston, using envelop provided, no later than <date +1 week>. If you have any questions, you may call my faculty advise at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Dr. Debra Bragg, 217.333.0807.

_____ Yes, I will be participate in the interviews.

_____ No, I am sorry I do not wish to participate.

_____ _____

(signature) (date)

NOTE: You may withdraw from the study at any point in the process.

APPENDIX D

SAMPLE PACKET TO PARTICIPANTS

Each of the following items were included in a packet of information sent to all participants in the concept mapping phase of the research:

1. Cover letter.
2. Demographic information sheet.
3. Instructions for sorting the statements.
4. Instructions for recording the sorted statements.
5. Instructions for rating the statements
6. Sort recording sheet.
7. Rating sheet for recording ratings (4 pages).

The 48 statements on 3" X 5" cards were included in the packet but not included in this document:

.

Sample Cover Letter Enclosed in Packet

Dear <name>:

Thank you for your assistance in my research on Green Acres Community College's goal of hiring a more diverse full-time faculty. The next phase of the research is called Concept Mapping and should only take about an hour of your time. This packet contains complete instructions and data collection forms for the three key data collection tasks of the concept mapping process:

- Task 1: Demographic questions
- Task 2: Sorting statements into groups and recording your results
- Task 3: Rating the relative importance of each individual statement

For Task 1: Demographic questions, you should have the following materials:

- Demographic Sheet

For Task 2: Sorting and Recording, you should have the following materials:

- Instructions for Task 2
- Stack of 48 cards
- Pile Recording Sheet

For Task 3: Rating, you have the following materials:

- Rating Recording Sheet

Please follow the enclosed instructions very carefully. With the small number of participants in this mapping project even a few small errors can significantly influence the final results. You need to return only three items:

1. The Demographic Sheet
2. The Sort Recording Sheet
3. The Importance Rating Recording Sheet.

I have coded each of the forms with a 6 digit number to allow me to keep all of each set together. I will be the only person that has access to this code and will destroy it upon completion of the project.

Your assistance in this project is intended to help the College in both the planning and the evaluation of current hiring practices for full-time faculty. It will also help me complete my dissertation. If anything seems to be missing, or if you have any questions, please contact me immediately at ***-****.

Please return these materials via enclosed envelope later than October 11, 1996.

George Johnston

Demographic Information Sheet

Please respond to each question by placing a check in the space to the right of the most appropriate response. While your data in this research project is anonymous and I am not asking for your name, I will not be able to include your data in some analysis that look at demographic subgroups unless you complete all of these demographic questions.

1. What type of contract are you employed under at Parkland?

   Administrative _____ Full-time Faculty _____

   Part-Time Faculty _____ Supportive Professional _____

2. Are you a department chair or other hiring authority?

   Yes _____ No _____

3. How many years have you been employed by Green Acres?

   1-3 _____ 4-6 _____ 7-9 _____ 10-12 _____ More than 12 _____

4. What is your gender?

   Female _____ Male _____

5. What is your race/ethnicity?

   Asian _____ American Indian _____ Black, Non-Hispanic _____

   Hispanic _____ White, Non-Hispanic _____

6. How many search committees have you served on in the last 6 years?

   0 _____ 1-2 _____ 3-4 _____ 5-6 _____ More than 6 _____

7. Have you ever served as the Affirmative Action Representative for a search?

   Yes _____ No _____

8. Have you ever served as Chair for a search?

   Yes _____ No _____

9. Check all those areas for which you have received training:

   Affirmative Action _____

   Diversity Training _____

   College Leadership Academy _____

   Chair Academy _____

Instructions for Sorting and Recording

Step 1 - Sorting the Strategy Statement Cards. Enclosed in the packet is a series of 48 statements cut into individual cards. Each card has a statement and an ID number. Group the statements into stacks in a way that makes sense to you following these guidelines:

- Group the statements for how similar in meaning they are to one another. Do not group the statements according to how important they are. Another part of the process will ask you how important you believe each idea to be.

- There is no right or wrong way to group the statements. You will probably be able to group the statements in several ways that make sense to you. Pick the arrangement that feels best to you.

- You cannot put one statement into two stacks at the same time. Each statement must be put into only one stack.

- People differ in how many stack they have. Anywhere from 10 to 20 usually works out well.

- A statement may be put alone if you think that it is unrelated to all other statements or stands alone as a unique idea.

- Make sure every statement is put in a stack. Do not leave any statement out.

Step 2 - Recording the Results. You also have in this packet a Sort Recording Sheet for recording the results of your groupings. On that sheet, please write the results of your sorting as described below. An example of how to record a stack is shown in the first box of the Sort Recording Sheet.

- Pick any stack to begin. The order does not matter.
- Quickly look over the statements in this stack and write down a short phrase or title that describes the contents of the stack. Record this phrase in the first available box in the first column.
- In the second column, write the statement ID numbers for each card in the stack. Separate the numbers with commas. When finished with a stack, set it aside so that you don't mistakenly record it twice.
- Move to your next stack and repeat the above process. Continue until all of the stacks have been named and recorded.
- The Sort Recording Sheet has room for 20 stacks or groups. If you need more, continue recording your results on a blank sheet of paper and be certain to attach this extra sheet.
- Please write legibly and clearly.

Instructions for Rating

Listed on the next several pages are 48 statements regarding the goal of hiring a more diverse full-time faculty at Parkland College. Review the entire list carefully as you will be ask to rate each item on its relative importance.

- Importance is rated in the left-hand column.
- Circle or cross out a number corresponding to a value between 1 and 5 for each statement in terms of its importance.
- Use the following scales:

  1 = Not Important

  2 = Somewhat Important

  3 = Moderately Important

  4 = Very Important

  5 = Extremely Important
- It is essential that you discriminate among the statements so that you use the entire rating scale. Use all five values at least several times.
- Rate each statement on both scales.
- If you must change an answers, be clear about which response you want recorded.

Return the Demographic Sheet, the Sort Recording Sheet, and the Rating Sheets no later than October 11, 1996.

PILE RECORDING SHEET

Name of Pile	Card Numbers
(Example) Affirmative Action	(Example) 17, 19, 22, 32, 42

If you need more groups, feel free to copy this page and return all sheets.

RATING SHEET

1 = Not Important
2 = Somewhat Important
3 = Moderately Important
4 = Very Important
5 = Extremely Important

Circle or cross out a number corresponding to a value between 1 and 5 for each statement in terms of its relative importance. It is essential that you discriminate among statements so that you use the entire rating scale. Use all five values at least several times.

Importance	#) Statement
1 2 3 4 5	1) Make the Vice-President responsible for planning and evaluating faculty search procedures.
1 2 3 4 5	2) Ask faculty members to help identify potential candidates in their discipline.
1 2 3 4 5	3) Actively involve high school counselors in encouraging students to teach at the two-year college level.
1 2 3 4 5	4) Endure that the Affirmative Action Representative is involved from the very beginning of the search process.
1 2 3 4 5	5) Specifically identify and target prospective graduate students for hire at Parkland.
1 2 3 4 5	6) Allocate college resources to provide placement services for spouses of prospective applicants.
1 2 3 4 5	7) Recruit faculty from colleges with programs similar to Green Acre's.
1 2 3 4 5	8) Have the Vice-President meet and brief each faculty search committee as soon as it is appointed.

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1 2 3 4 5	9) Develop a recruiting package for use when visiting colleges.
1 2 3 4 5	10) Recruit former students who may have completed baccalaureate degrees or higher.
1 2 3 4 5	11) Develop a joint spouse program for community employment opportunities.
1 2 3 4 5	12) Have the President clearly articulate the goal of hiring a more diverse faculty.
1 2 3 4 5	13) Develop effective methods to evaluate the search process.
1 2 3 4 5	14) Track former minority students with professional credentials and invite them back to campus.
1 2 3 4 5	15) Offer one year faculty exchanges with other colleges and universities.
1 2 3 4 5	16) Obtain lists from colleges with significant numbers of minority graduates and follow-up with their placement offices.
1 2 3 4 5	17) Ensure all part-time faculty are notified of full-time openings.
1 2 3 4 5	18) Identify graduate students who could be mentored by a faculty member.
1 2 3 4 5	19) Identify champions who will recommend and support diverse candidates through out the hiring process and ensure those champions sit on search committees.
1 2 3 4 5	20) Contact labor unions and trade/professional organizations that represent individuals with specific skills.
1 2 3 4 5	21) Enhance diversity training programs for current faculty and staff.
1 2 3 4 5	22) Ensure that membership on the search committee is broadly representative.
1 2 3 4 5	23) Offer visiting professorships,

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1 2 3 4 5	24) Develop a mentoring program with community college faculty for prospective graduate students prior to their receiving their graduate degrees.
1 2 3 4 5	25) Develop a sense of faculty ownership in the search process.
1 2 3 4 5	26) Involve the search committee at the earliest steps in the process, including writing the position description.
1 2 3 4 5	27) Establish joint agreements with senior institutions for students beginning graduate degree programs.
1 2 3 4 5	28) Increase the number of contacts with qualified candidates through professional and community organizations.
1 2 3 4 5	29) Educate the Board of Trustees on the importance of a more diverse faculty.
1 2 3 4 5	30) Emphasize the location of the college in relationship to the university.
1 2 3 4 5	31) Identify present Parkland students who can, with the College's help, complete their BA and MA and return to teach for the college.
1 2 3 4 5	32) Network with minority councils of AACC such as the National Council for Black African Affairs.
1 2 3 4 5	33) Utilize existing advisory committees in recruiting qualified applicants with non-educational experience.
1 2 3 4 5	34) Provide sufficient resources to support the search committees.
1 2 3 4 5	35) Develop a pool of faculty and staff who are trained in Affirmative Action guidelines to serve as Affirmative Action representatives on search committees.
1 2 3 4 5	36) Provide training to search committee members about the search process.
1 2 3 4 5	37) Establish joint agreements with Historically Black Colleges and Universities as well as other institutions with high percentages of minority graduate degree students.
1 2 3 4 5	38) Develop recruitment materials that feature the college as a progressive premier community college.

1	2	3	4	5	39) Strengthen ties with senior institutions that provide teacher preparation programs in vocational education.
1	2	3	4	5	40) Develop scholarships and other incentives for high school and college students in areas of greatest need for more diverse faculties.
1	2	3	4	5	41) Initiate recruitment efforts focusing on companies in transition or early retirees.
1	2	3	4	5	42) Establish an Affirmative Action Officer who is separate from the Office of Human Resources.
1	2	3	4	5	43) Provide reliable feedback to the faculty and staff on the numbers of minorities in the student population.
1	2	3	4	5	44) Identify and target strategic employment fairs where the College should be represented.
1	2	3	4	5	45) Make department chairs responsible for increasing the diversity among their full- and part-time faculty.
1	2	3	4	5	46) Identify potential change agents among the faculty and staff and provide them with additional training in such areas as leadership.
1	2	3	4	5	47) Provide training for search committee chairs in how the process should work.
1	2	3	4	5	48) Make certain that each candidate's visit is a pleasurable one.

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APPENDIX E

STATEMENTS ORDERED BY IMPORTANCE

Table A2

Statements in descending order of importance.

#	Statement (Rating)
48	Make certain that each candidate's visit is a pleasurable one. (4.60)
35	Develop a pool of faculty and staff who are trained in Affirmative Action Guidelines to serve as Affirmative Action Representatives (4.44)
38	Develop recruiting materials that feature Green Acres as a progressive premier community college (4.36)
47	Provide training for search committee chairs in how the process should work (4.36)
9	Develop a recruiting package for use when visiting colleges. (4.32)
25	Develop a sense of faculty ownership in the search process. (4.28)
8	Have the Vice President meet and brief each faculty search committee as soon as it is appointed. (4.24)
13	Develop effective methods to evaluate the search process. (4.24)
36	Provide training to search committee members. (4.24)
4	Ensure that the Affirmative Action Representative is involved from the very beginning of the search process. (4.20)
12	Have the President clearly articulate the goal of hiring a more diverse faculty. (4.20)
22	Ensure that membership on the search committee is broadly representative. (4.16)
34	Provide sufficient resources to support the search committee. (4.16)
39	Strengthen ties with vocational training programs at senior institutions. (4.04)

(table continues)

Table A2 (continues)

#	Statement (Rating)
26	Involve the search committee at the earliest steps in the process, including writing the position description. (4.00)
17	Ensure that all part-time faculty are notified of full-time openings. (3.96)
29	Educate the Board of Trustees on the importance of a more diverse faculty. (3.96)
21	Enhance diversity training programs for the current faculty and staff. (3.92)
37	Establish joint agreements with Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) as well as other designated educational institutions with high percentages of minority graduate degree students. (3.92)
44	Identify and target strategic employment fairs where the College should be represented. (3.92)
14	Track former minority students with professional teaching credentials and invite them back on campus. (3.88)
43	Provide reliable feedback to the faculty and staff on the numbers of minorities in the student population. (3.84)
28	Increase the number of contacts with qualified candidates through professional and community organizations. (3.80)
20	Contact labor unions and trade/professional organizations that represent individuals with specific skills. (3.72)
15	Offer one year faculty exchanges with other colleges and universities. (3.68)
16	Obtain lists from colleges with significant numbers of minority graduates and follow-up with their placement offices. (3.68)
32	Network with minority councils of AACC such as the National Council for Black African Affairs. (3.68)

(table continues)

Table A2 (continues)

#	Statement (Rating)
40	Develop scholarships and other incentives for high school and college students in areas of greatest need. (3.52)
2	Ask faculty members to help identify potential candidates in their discipline. (3.44)
23	Offer visiting professorships. (3.44)
45	Make department chairs responsible for increasing the diversity among their full- and part-time faculty. (3.44)
1	Make the Vice President responsible for planning and evaluating faculty search procedures. (3.40)
5	Specifically identify and target prospective graduate students. (3.36)
24	Develop a mentoring program with community college faculty for prospective graduate students prior to their receiving their graduate degrees. (3.36)
30	Emphasize the location of Green Acres in relationship to the A nearby research-oriented university. (3.32)
46	Identify potential change agents among the faculty and staff and provide them with additional training in such areas as leadership. (3.32)
10	Recruit former students who may have completed baccalaureate degrees or higher. (3.24)
18	Identify graduate students who could be mentored by Green Acres faculty members. (3.24)
27	Establish joint agreements with senior institutions for students beginning graduate degree programs. (3.16)
19	Identify champions who will recommend and support diverse candidates through out the process and ensure those champions sit on search committees. (3.12)
31	Identify present Green Acres students who can, with the College's help, complete their BA and MA and return to teach for the College. (3.04)

(table continues)

Table A2 (continues)

#	Statement (Rating)
7	Recruit faculty from colleges with programs similar to Green Acres's. (2.80)
11	Develop a joint spouse program for community employment opportunities. (2.80)
42	Establish an Affirmative Action Officer who is separate from the Office of Human Resources. (2.68)
6	Allocate college resources to provide placement services for spouses of prospective applicants. (2.64)
3	Actively involve high school counselors in encouraging students to teach at the two-year college level. (2.60)
41	Initiate recruitment efforts focusing on companies in transition or early retirees. (2.60)

Minimum Value	2.60
Maximum value	4.60
Mean	3.99
Median	3.72
Standard Deviation	0.54

VITA

GEORGE HENRY JOHNSTON

Date of Birth: November 5, 1944

Place of Birth: Hutchinson, KS

Current Address: 1173 Karen Drive

Monticello, IL 61856

Education:

Kansas State University,	Manhattan, KS.	B.S. -- Secondary Education	(1967)
Kansas State University,	Manhattan, KS	M.A. --Theatre	(1971)
Parkland College	Champaign, IL	A.A.S.--Electronic Engineering Technology	(1983)
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, IL		Ph.D. --Education	(1997)

Honors:

Alpha-Omega (academic honors) -- Parkland College

Phi Delta Kappa - National Education Honorary

Omicron Tau Theta - National Vocational Education Honorary

Walter M. Taylor - Outstanding teacher award -- Greenfield Community College

Outstanding Service Award -- Parkland College

Teaching Experience:

Junction City Sr. High School Junction City, KS. Teacher (1967 - 1971)

Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS Graduate Teaching Assistant (1971)

North Shore Community College, Beverly, MA Adjunct Instructor (1971 - 1973)

Teaching Experience (continued)

Salem State College Salem, MA Visiting Faculty (Spring 1973)

Greenfield Community College Greenfield, MA Director of Theatre (1973 - 1977)

Parkland College Champaign, IL Professor (1983 to date)

Professional Experience:

Professional actor and stage manager (member– Actor's Equity)

Professional union stagehand (member – I.A.T.S.E.)

Research Associate - National Center for Research in Vocation Education(NCRVE)

Research Presented at National Conferences:

Panel presentation on a national study on work-based learning in two year colleges at the annual meeting of the National Council for Occupational Education in Chicago, IL in October, 1994.

Presented findings of a national study on work-based learning in two-year colleges for the League for Innovation in Community Colleges in San Diego, CA in February, 1995.

Presented findings of research on student trustees in community colleges at annual meeting of the American Association of Community College Trustees in Miami, FL in Fall 1996.

Presented findings of research on a study of work-based learning Dutch style at the annual meeting of the National Council for Occupational Education in St. Louis, MO in October, 1996.

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